

THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of February, 1773.

ARTICLE I.

Comedies of Plautus, Translated into familiar Blank Verse, by the Gentleman who translated The Captives. Vol. III. and IV. 8vo. 12s. sewed. Becket and De Hondt.

PLAUTUS is the most ancient Latin author, whose works are transmitted to us in any degree of perfection. His merits are universally acknowledged; yet, by some means or other, his writings are little known. We shall therefore introduce this article with a short account of the poet and his productions:

Plautus was born at Sarsina, a city of Umbria, in Italy; but in what year we are not informed. Cicero tells us, that Ennius was older than Plautus*; and Ennius, according to the most probable accounts, was born about 237 years before Christ†. Plautus, as the same author asserts, died under the consulship of Publius Claudius Pulcher and L. Portius Licinius, that is, about 182 years before the Christian era‡. We will therefore suppose, that he flourished 190, or 200 years before that epocha. The writers about the same time were L. Andronicus, Ennius, Nævius, Cæcilius, and others, of whose works we have only some fragments remaining.

* Ennius fuit major natu, quam Plautus et Nævius. Cic. Tusc. Quæst. l. i. § 3.

† A. Gell. Noct. Att. l. xvii. c. 21.

‡ Cic. De Claris Orat. § 60.

Our poet was born under many unfavourable circumstances. His parentage was mean, and his education, we may suppose, proportionably narrow. Having lost all his money in merchandize, and being reduced to extreme poverty, he was obliged to place himself in the service of a baker, and turn a hand-mill for a livelihood. In this capacity he wrote several comedies*. This, probably, will account for the number of low characters which he introduces in all his plays; slaves, parasites, sharpers, pimps, bawds, panders, courtezans, and young sparks who are almost always in want of money, and procuring it by some imposition, on a usurer, a procurer, or a father.

The age in which he lived was equally inauspicious. Literature had but just made its first appearance in Italy. They had nothing at Rome but a few medleys of verse and prose, satires and farces, mixed with rudeness and obscenities; and Plautus, like our Shakespeare, was in some measure obliged to adapt his compositions to the reigning taste. It is no wonder therefore, that he frequently runs into trifling quibbles, silly jests, and buffoonries†. There is, however, a fund of wit and humour in his comedies, many fine moral sentiments, and a variety of characters drawn with great ingenuity.

Ancient and modern authors concur in celebrating his excellencies. Tully commends him for his elegant, genteel, ingenious, and facetious raillery‡. It was observed, by Varro, who took the observation from his master Ælius Stilo, that if the Muses were to speak Latin, they would speak in the language of Plautus§. Aulus Gellius applauds the elegance of his style, and calls him the glory of the Latin language||. Macrobius affirms, that Plautus and Tully were the most eloquent of all the ancients, and excelled all other writers in true humour and delicate satire¶. Casaubon styles him the most ingenious and facetious of the poets**; and Lipsius affirms,

* A. Gell. l. iiii. c. 3. † Vide Hor. de Arte Poet. v. 275.

‡ Est jocandi genus elegans, urbanum, ingeniosum, facetum, quo genere non modo Plautus noster, sed etiam philosophorum Socraticorum libri referti sunt. Cic. de Offic. l. i.

§ In comediâ maxime claudicamus; licet Varro dicat, Musas, L. Ælii Stilonis [Stilonis] sententiâ, Plantino sermone locuturas fuisse, si Latine loqui vellent. Quint. l. x. c. 1.

|| Plautus homo linguæ atque elegantie in verbis Latine princeps. A. Gell. Noct. Att. l. vii. c. 17. Plautus Latine linguæ decus. Ib. l. xix. c. 8.

¶ Animadverto duos, quos eloquentissimos antiqua ætas tulit, comicum Plautum, et oratorem Tullium, eos ambos etiam ad jocorum venustatem cæteris præstitisse. Macrobi. Saturn. l. ii. c. 1.

** Ingeniosissimus & facetissimus poetarum Plautus. Casaub.

that we shall find in Plautus propriety and purity of style, a vein of genuine pleasantry and humour, and that Attic elegance which is not to be found in any other Latin writer*.

Several of his comedies are lost, but we have yet twenty left. Ancient critics are not agreed concerning the number of his pieces. Some reckoned only twenty-one; others twenty-five; others forty†; nay, Aulus Gellius informs us, that in his time 130 comedies passed under the name of Plautus: but he adds, many of these comedies were probably written by preceding poets, and only retouched and polished by Plautus‡. The remaining twenty are generally ranged in the following almost alphabetical order.

1. *Amphitruo*. This comedy has been imitated by Rotrou, Moliere, and Dryden. Part of it is lost, and supplied by another hand. This Supplement consists of about 186 lines in the fourth act, and very nearly resembles the style and manner of Plautus.

2. *Asinaria*, or the Ass Merchant. Two principal characters in this play are Demenetus, an old gentleman under petticoat-government, and Argyrippus, his son, in love with a courtesan. The former having received twenty minæ of an ass-merchant, sends it to the latter, to enable him to carry on his intrigue, on condition that he would permit him to pass a night with his mistress. The latter consents. But in the midst of their festivity, they are all unfortunately surprised by the entrance of Artemona, the wife of Demenetus. This comedy was written in Greek by Demophilus, and translated by Plautus. The title in the original is *Οἰστρος* or *Οἰστρος*. Our author in the prologue says of it,

‘Inest lepos, ludusque in hac comœdiâ.’

3. *Aulularia*. This word comes from *aula* (antiquè *pro olla*) the diminutive of which is *aulula*, and signifies *a pot*, in which the treasure was kept, that was found by Euclio. Moliere took the hint, and great part of his comedy called *L’Avaro* from this play. We have two comedies on the same plan, one by Shadwell, the other by Fielding, called, *The Miser*. Mr. Thornton, in his translation, has adopted this title, as being more familiar to an English ear.

4. *Captivi*. Mr. Whalley, in his edition of Ben Jonson’s works, gives the following account of the story. ‘Philopo-

* Plautus ille scriptor est, qui puritatem, qui proprietatem sermonis suppediet: ille qui urbanitatem, jocos, sales, et eam Atticorum venerem sufficiat, quam frustra in reliquo Latino quæras. Epist. Quæst. l. v. ep. 26.

† Servius in *Æneid.* l. i.

‡ Ab eo retractatæ & expolitæ. Noct. Att. l. iii. c. 3.

84 *Comedies of Plautus, Translated. Vol. III. and IV.*

Iemus the son of Hegio, an Ætolian, is taken prisoner; and Hegio, with a view to ransom his son by the exchange, buys Philocrates and Tyndarus, two Elian captives. Tyndarus is slave to Philocrates, and is left under his master's name, while the true Philocrates is sent to Elis, under the name of Tyndarus, to effect the liberty of Philopolemus, the son of Hegio. The fraud however is discovered to Hegio, before the return of Philocrates; and Tyndarus is put to the torture, and sent to the mines. At the return of Philopolemus and Philocrates, with whom also there comes Stalagmus, a fugitive slave of Hegio, it is discovered that Tyndarus is the son of Hegio, who was carried away by Stalagmus, at the age of four years, and sold by him to the father of Philocrates.

Camerarius thinks this one of the best and most elegant of Plautus's comedies. Some of the incidents are finely imagined; and the author himself says, in recommendation of it,

— ‘Ad pudicos mores facta hæc fabula est.’ *Sub finem.*

5. *Curculio*, the Parasite. *Curculio*, which signifies a *weevil*, or ‘an insect that eats out the pith of corn,’ is the name of a parasite, on whose intrigues much of the business of this comedy depends. The story is to this effect: a supposed slave is found to be a free woman; a captain, who wanted to procure her as a mistress, is discovered to be her brother; and in the conclusion, she is married to her lover.

6. *Casina*. The plot of this play consists in a trick put upon Stalino, an amorous old gentleman, and Olympio, his bailiff, a confederate in his amour, by substituting Chalinus, a slave, in the room of Casina. This comedy is translated from Diphilus, a Greek comic poet. We cannot say of it what the author says of the Captives—*ad pudicos mores facta fabula est.*

7. *Cistellaria*, the Casket. This comedy consists of only one single incident, the discovery of a girl (who had been exposed in her infancy) by means of a casket, containing some trinkets, which are known and acknowledged by her parents.

8. *Epidicus*. *Epidicus* is the name of a slave, on whose rogueries most of the incidents depend. This was one of the author's favourite comedies, as he himself tells us.

Etiam Epidicum, quam ego fabulam æque ac meipsum amo.

Bacch. act. II. sc. v. 36.

Mr. Warner, in allusion to an incident near the end of the play, intitles it, *The Discovery.*

9. *Bacchides*. The *Bacchides*, two sister-courtezans, principal characters in this play, insnare two old gentlemen, who come to their house, denouncing vengeance upon them for debauch-

debauching and ruining their sons. Such is the frailty of mankind,

Senes, dum gnatis student, scortantur, potitant!

In a supposititious prologue this play is said to be translated from Philemon.

10. *Mostellaria*, the Apparition. *Mostra* is an old word, the same as *monstra*. Hence *mostella* and *mostellaria*. This comedy is mentioned by several ancient critics and commentators under the title of *Pbasma*. Theuropides, a merchant of Athens, returns from abroad; and Tranio, an artful servant, in order to prevent his going into his own house, and surprising his son, and the rest of the company at their entertainment, makes him believe that the house is haunted, and that his son had purchased another. Upon which pretence the old gentleman is choused out of forty minæ.—The Intriguing Chambermaid, a comedy of two acts, by the late Henry Fielding, is founded upon this play.

11. *Menæchmi*, the Twin Brothers. In this play the similarity of two brothers, called *Menæchmi*, is the source of various comic errors and perplexities, which are all unravelled in the catastrophe. This is generally accounted one of the best of our author's pieces. A learned critic calls it *festivissima, et eruditæ varietatis fabula* *. Some have imagined, from an expression in the prologue, that Plautus translated it from Epicharmus. Others have thought, that he took it from the *Διδυμοί* of Menander.

12. *Miles Gloriosus*, the Braggard Captain. This play contains many comic incidents, calculated to mortify and expose the vain-glorious and self-conceited captain. It does not appear who the author was from whom Plautus took it. He only says, that in the Greek it was stiled *Αλαζων*, *jaclator*.

13. *Mercator*, the Merchant. This comedy is translated from Philemon, who stiled it *Εμπόρος*.

14. *Pseudolus*, the Cheat. *Pseudolus* is the name of a slave, on whose contrivances all the incidents depend. The plot is a piece of dexterity and cosenage played off upon a pander, whose tyranny, rapacity, pride, and insolence are well described. Douza calls this play, *Ocellus fabularum Plauti*, 'the pearl of all the comedies of Plautus.' Camerarius says of it, *Argumentum est varium & planè mirificum*. 'The story contains great variety; and the incidents are admirably disposed.' It was one of the author's favourites, as Cicero informs us: *Quàm gaudebat Bello suo Punico Nævius! quàm Truculento suo*

§ Janus Gulielmus in Plaut. Quæst.

Plautus! quàm Pseudolo †! * How did Nævius exult in his poem on the Punic war! What joy had Plautus in his *Truculentus*, and in his *Pseudolus*!

15. *Pænulus*, the Carthaginian. The prologue informs us, that in this play, the author has imitated the *Achilles* of *Aristarchus*, a tragic poet, who lived about the time of *Euripides*. The title is not *Pænus*, but *Pænulus*, the Little Carthaginian. To account for this, the commentators observe, that the Carthaginians were frequently ridiculed by the Romans for the shortness of their stature; that *Pænulus*, the diminutive, was used by way of contempt; or that *Hanno*, the Carthaginian, a principal character in this play, was a little man, being called *Act v. sc. 5. ballex viri*, a dwarf, or hop o' my thumb. Or, as no reason appears why *Hanno* should be a little man, that the part was probably written for an actor, who was a little man. The subject is the discovery of *Hanno's* nephew and two daughters, who had been stolen in their infancy, and carried to *Calydon*. Some passages in the fifth act are in the Punic language. See *Bochart, Phaleg. col. 721. Sam. Petiti Miscell. l. ii. c. 1, 2, 3. M. Le Cler. Bibl. Univ. tom. ix. p. 256. Seld. de Diis Syris, Proleg. c. 2.*

16. *Perfa*, the Persian. The plot chiefly consists in a piece of roguery practised upon a pander, by a pretended Persian, who sells him the daughter of a parasite (concerned in the scheme) as a beautiful female captive, lately brought from Arabia. The cheat is not suspected till the father comes and demands his daughter.

17. *Rudens*. The rope, by which a fisherman drags his net to shore, wherein is contained the *vidulus*, or wallet, which contributes to the catastrophe, is called *rudens*. See *Act iv. sc. 3. Mr. Thornton* intitles it, *the Shipwreck*. This play is esteemed among the best, if not the very best of our author's productions. Plautus is supposed to have borrowed the subject at least from *Diphilus*.

18. *Stichus*, the name of a slave, who acts a principal part in this play. The subject is the affection of *Panegyris* and *Pinacium* for their husbands, and their determination to persist in their constancy towards them, notwithstanding they had been absent three years, and were supposed to be dead. Their safe return, with an increase of fortune, is a principal part of the catastrophe; which seems to be but very indifferently conducted. *Mr. Warner* intitles this play *the Conjugal Fidelity*.

19. *Trinummus*. No reason can be given why our author should choose to reject the original Greek title to this play, and

† *Cic. de Senect. § 14.*

substitute so uncouth a one as *Trinummus*, which signifies *three pieces of money*, the sum given to a person who is hired to carry on a deception in one of the scenes. It is translated from Philemon, who called it *Θησαυρος*. Scaliger prefers the Greek title: *rectè Philemon Thesaurus* *. The art of the author, says Mr. Thornton, in the conduct of this comedy, is much to be admired. The opening of it is highly interesting; the incidents naturally arise from each other, and the whole concludes happily with the reformation and marriage of Lesbonicus. It abounds with most excellent moral sentiments and reflections; and the same may be said of it with equal justice, as is said of the *Captives*, 'this play is founded on chaste manners.'

20. *Truculentus*, the Churl. *Stratilax*, a rustic servant, is the churl, or clown, a character of no importance to the business of the play. Scaliger says, it ought to have been intitled, *Rusticus*: *Rusticus enim ibi, non Truculentus est* †. This comedy, according to Cicero, was one of the author's favourites ‡. The design of it is to expose the artifices and rapacity of courtezans. — The original has suffered much by the injuries of time.

These are all the dramatic pieces of our author now remaining, except some fragments, which have been collected by Lambinus, Geo. Fabricius, Taubmannus, Pareus, and others. These industrious compilers have given us a collection of passages, cited by Latin grammarians, from about forty comedies, different from those in the preceding list, which were formerly extant under the name of Plautus, but are now lost §. They have also given us a collection of passages and single words, cited by different writers from the foregoing twenty comedies, which do not appear in any of our present copies. But all these fragments are short, and consequently of no great importance.

There is one circumstance, besides their intrinsic merit, which gives a singular value to the works of Plautus. The dramatic pieces of Diphilus, Philemon, Demophilus, Menander, Eubulus, Epicharmus, and many other Greek comic writers, are lost in the general wreck of ancient learning. Some of them, without doubt, were worthy of immortality. We cannot but lament the loss of Menander, when we read

* Poet. l. iii. c. 126. † Ibid. ‡ Vide supra in *Pseudulo*.

§ Many comedies, as Fabricius remarks, were ascribed to Plautus, which were written by one M. Aquilius, or M. Accius, or Acutius, or C. Plautius, or Plotius, or lastly Turpilius. Bibl. Lat. c. i. A Varrone scriptum est, Plautium fuisse quempiam poetam comœdiarum, cujus quoniam fabulæ Plauti inscriptæ forent, acceptas esse quasi Plautinas, quàm essent non à Plauto Plautinæ, sed à Plautio Plautianæ. A. Gell. l. iii. c. 3.

the high encomium which Quintillian has paid him *. The rest have had their several applauders. Plautus, we may suppose, translated, or imitated, the best of their compositions. He acknowledges his obligations to them in several of his prologues. We are therefore indebted to him for preserving us some excellent copies, or at least some beautiful sketches of their original portraits.

The translation now before us will certainly be acceptable to the English reader, as Plautus has never appeared entire in our language. Echard translated only three plays, which had been selected by Madam Dacier, viz. *Amphitruo*, *Rudens*, and *Epidicus*. But Echard has palpably translated from the French, more than from his original author. His style besides is coarse and indelicate; and while he aims at being familiar, he is commonly low and vulgar. Cooke, the translator of Terence, published proposals for a complete translation of our author; but he printed only *Amphytrion* †. There is likewise a translation of the *Menæchmi*, by Mr. W. W. but this was published as early as the year 1595, and the language is old and obsolete. These are in prose. The ingenious Mr. Colman, in his Terence, introduced a new and elegant mode of translation in familiar blank verse. The late Mr. Thornton, whose abilities were in every respect equal to a work of this nature, followed his example, and began to introduce Plautus to public notice in the same agreeable form. He published a translation of seven plays in 1767 ‡, and intended to have translated the other fourteen; but the world was soon after deprived of this excellent scholar. On which occasion, we, who knew him well, can truly say, in the words of Plautus,

———— *Comædia luget,*

Et amici simul omnes collacrumârunt. Apud A. Gell. l. i. c. 24.

The translation of Plautus is however continued by an able hand. Mr. Warner has pursued the plan, marked out by Mr. Colman and Thornton, and presented the public with a translation of the following plays, viz. *Menæchmi*, *Epidicus*, *Mofcellaria*, *Pseudolus*, *Stichus*, *Cistellaria*, *Curculio*, *Truculen-*

* Menander vel unus, meo quidem iudicio, diligenter lectus, et cuncta quæ præcipimus efficienda sufficiat. Ita omnem vitæ imaginem expressit; tanta in eo inveniendi copia, et eloquendi facultas; ita est omnibus rebus, personis, affectibus, accommodatus, &c. Quint. l. x. c. i.

† Cooke's edition is in Latin and English; and seems to have been intended merely for the use of learners.

‡ *Amphitruo*, *Miles Gloriosus*, *Captivi*, *Trinummus*, *Mercator*, *Aulularia*, *Rudens*. The *Captives* is translated by Richard Warner, esq. the *Merchant*, by George Colman, esq. See Crit. Rev. vol. xxiii. p. 113.

pus, Pænulus. At the bottom of the page he has subjoined a considerable number of useful notes, extracted from M. de L'Oeuvre, Lambinus, Taubmannus, Gronovius, Marolles, Gueudeville, Limiers, &c. To these he has added notes of his own, and some which were communicated to him by particular friends.

As we have already extended this article, as far as the limits we can assign it will allow, we can only lay before our readers a short extract, as a specimen of Mr. Warner's mode of translating. We select the following soliloquy, merely because it is commodiously detached from the comedy in which it occurs. Philolaches is a young gentleman, who supports a principal character in the *Mostellaria*.

‘ *Phi.* I’ve long and often thought, and argued deep,
And in my heart (if I have any heart)
Have long debated and revolv’d, What’s man
Just born, to be compar’d to? and have now
Found out his likeness. Man is a new house—
I’ll tell you how; and, tho’ you think it not,
I will convince you, what I say is true.—
When you have heard, you’ll think and say as I do.
Lend me your ears, and you shall hear my arguments;
For I’d have all as knowing as myself—
As soon as e’er an edifice is plann’d,
Built up in taste, and polish’d with exactness,
The architect’s commended: and his house
By all approv’d; each takes it for a model,
And spares no pains no cost to have one like it.
But when a tenant comes, unthrifty, mean,

‘ *Recordatus multum & diu cogitavi,
Argumentaque in pectus multa institui
Ego: atque in meo corde, si est quod mihi cor,
Eam rem volutavi & diu disputavi,
Hominem quojus rei, quando natus est,
Similem esse arbitrarer simulacrumque habere.
Id repperi jam exemplum.
Novarum ædium esse arbitror similem ego hominem,
Quando hic natus est. ei rei argumenta dicam,
Atque hoc haud videtur verisimile vobis;
At ego id faciam esse ita ut credatis.
Profecto ita esse, ut prædico, vero vincam.
Atque hoc vosmetipsi scio,
Perinde uti nunc ego esse autumo, quando
Dicta audietis mea, haud aliter dicetis.
Auscultate argumenta dum dico ad hanc rem.*

‘ *V. 2.—if I have any heart*] The original is, *si est quod mihi cor*, ‘If I have any courage.’ We use our word *heart* in the same double sense.

‘ *V. 12.—polish’d with exactness*] From this and other passages in our author, where a house is compared to a mirror, it should seem probable that the houses of the Romans were polished on the outside.

Neglectful, with a lazy family,
 The fault is strait upon the building laid;
 Good in itself, but kept in bad repair.—
 Then, as it often happens, comes a storm;
 Demolishes the tilting, spoils the gutters,
 And the too careless owner takes no heed
 The damage to repair. A shower succeeds;
 Washes the walls, the roof admits the water,
 The weather rots the builder's edifice,
 The house grows worse by use: and in all this
 The architect is not at all to blame—
 A great part of mankind affect delay;
 And, if it cost them money to repair it,
 Delay it still, till ev'ry wall falls in,
 And the whole's then anew from the foundation—
 Thus much for buildings.—Now, how men are like them.
 First then—All parents are their children's architects;
 They first lay the foundation, and then raise
 The superstructure of their education—
 They carefully add firmness; that they may
 Become good men; and be an ornament
 As well as use and safeguard to their country—
 And to such ends, they spare nor cost nor pains;

Simul gnarures vos volo esse hanc rem mecum.
 Aedes quom extemplo sunt paratæ, expolitæ,
 Factæ probe, examussim,
 Laudant fabrum, atque ædes probant. sibi quisque
 Inde exemplum expetunt: sibi quisque simile,
 Suo usque sumptu: operæ ne parcunt suæ.
 Atque ubi illo immigrat nequam homo indiligensque,
 Cum pigrâ familiâ, immundus, instrenuus,
 Hic jam ædibus vitium additur,
 Bonæ cum curantur male.
 Atque illud sæpe fit, tempestas venit,
 Confringit tegulas, imbricesque: ibi
 Dominus indiligens reddere alias nevolt.
 Venit imber, lavit parietes, perpluunt
 Tigna, putrefacit aër operam fabri.
 Nequior jam factus est usus ædium:
 Atque haud est fabri culpa. sed magna pars hominum
 Mora hanc induxerunt, si quid nummo sarciri potest,
 Usque mantant, neque id faciunt, conicum
 Parietes ruunt. ædificantur ædes totæ denuo.
 Hæc argumenta ego ædificiis dixi. nunc etiam volo
 Dicere, ut homines ædium esse similes arbitremini.
 Primum dum parentes fabri liberum sunt,

* V. 30. *Delay it still, till ev'ry wall falls in*] A sentiment not much unlike this we meet with in Holy Scripture.

"By much slothfulness the building decayeth, and through idleness of the hands the house droppeth through."

Ecclesiastes, chap. x. ver. 18.

* V. 40.—*on this account they count for nothing.*] There is a jingle between *sumptus* and *sumptui*, which we have here endeavoured at imitating.

Expençe

Expence on this account, they count for nothing :
 Refine their manners, teach them letters, laws :
 And by their cost and care, endeavour still
 That other men should wish their children like them—
 Then to the army—There their father's place them
 Under protection of some great relation ;
 And so they pass out of the builder's hands,
 Ere they have serv'd a year—You then may see
 A sample how the building may turn out.
 For I myself, as long as I was under
 The builder's hands, was sober all the time,
 And honest—But as soon as e'er I follow'd
 My own inventions, I at once undid
 All that my architect had done before.
 Then enter'd idleness—That was the storm
 Brought on me hail and rain; quite overthrew
 My modesty, and each restraint of virtue,
 And utterly untild me—Heedless I
 Again to cover in my edifice ;
 Love, like a torrent, rush'd into my heart,
 O'erflow'd my breast, and soak'd quite through my soul.
 And now, my fortune, credit, and fair fame,
 My virtue and my honour, all have left me.

Et fundamentum substruunt liberorum.
 Extollunt, parant sedulo in firmitatem,
 Ut & in usum boni, & in speciem populo
 Sint : sibi que aut materiæ ne parcunt.
 Nec sumptus sibi sumptui esse ducunt :
 Expoliunt, docent literas, jura & leges,
 Sumptu suo & labore nituntur, ut
 Alii sibi esse illorum similes expetant.
 Ad legionem quom itant adminiculum eis danunt
 Tum aliquem cognatum suum.
 Eatenus abeunt à fabris.
 Unum ubi meritum est stipendium, igitur tum
 Specimen cernitur, quo eveniat ædificatio.
 Nam ego ad illud frugi usque & probus fui,
 In fabrorum protestate dum fui.
 Postea quom immigravi in ingenium meum,
 Perdidi operam fabrorum ilico oppido.
 Venit ignavia, ea mihi tempestas fuit,
 Ea mihi adventu suo grandinem imbremque attulit;
 Hæc verecundiam mihi & virtutis modum
 Deturbavit, detexitque me ilico.
 Post illa med obtegere neglegens fui :
 Continuo pro imbre amor advenit in cor meum.

V. 44. *Then to the army—There their fathers place them—Under protection of some great relation*] The Romans always appointed a guardian to their sons the first year they entered into the military service. De L'Oeuvre.

V. 56.—*and each restraint of virtue*] The original is, "Hæc verecundiam mihi et virtutis modum deturbavit. Virtutis modum," i. e. "modum quem virtus statuit, the restraints or limitations imposed by virtue." The same idea is also expressed afterwards by *modestia*.

By negligence, I'm grown still worse and worse;
 These rafters are so ruinous, so foul,
 With rotting moisture, that, by Pollux' temple, 65
 I see no means remain to patch it up:
 The whole must fall, and its foundation fail,
 Without an hand to help me. My soul's vex'd,
 When I but think of what I once have been,
 And what I am. None of my age more active, 70
 Or at the discus, javelin, ball, at wrestling,
 In horsemanship, in racing, or in arms—
 I then enjoy'd me, an example liv'd
 Of thrift and of hard living; an example
 The best have copied; but I now have found 75
 By following my inventions, after all,
 I am myself become, as 'twere just nothing.

The English reader must always remember, that Plautus will necessarily appear to disadvantage, even in the best translation, inasmuch as he will want, in any version whatsoever, the charm of classical expression, and that humour, which is in a great measure verbal.

Mr. Warner informs us, that the remaining comedies, which are, *Afinaria*, *Casina*, *Bacchides*, and *Persa*, with the Fragments, are in great forwardness for the press, and will be laid before the public with all convenient speed.

Is usque in pectus permanavit, permadefecit
 Cor meum. nunc simul res; fides, fama, virtus,
 Decusque deseruerunt: ego sum in usu—
 Factus nimio nequior. atque edepol ita
 Hæc tigna humide putent. non videor mihi
 Sarcire posse ædeis meas, quin totæ
 Perpetuæ ruant, quin cum fundamento
 Perierint, nec quisquam esse auxilio queat.
 Cor dolet, cum scio nunc ut sum, atque ut fui;
 Quo neque industrior de juventute erat
 Arte gymnastica, disco, hastis, pila,
 Cursu, armis, equo. visitabam volupe:
 Parsimonia & duritia disciplinæ aliis eram:
 Optumi quique expetebant eam doctrinam sibi:
 Nunc postquam nihili sum, id vero meopte ingenio repperi.

Ex edit. Boxhornii.

'V. 71. Or at the discus—] The *discus* or quoit was made of stone, iron or copper, five or six fingers broad, and more than a foot long. Throwing this was an exercise among the Greeks and Romans; and he who threw it highest and farthest was the victor. At wrestling—*Arte Gymnasticâ*.

'V. 74. Of thrift and of hard living—] *Visitabam volupè*, that is, says Lambin, *duriter et ita tamen jucundè*. This seems forced. We rather approve of Acidalius's correction, *visitabam haud volupè*, agreeable to which we have translated the passage.

II. *Chirurgical Observations and Cases.* By William Bromfeild, Surgeon to her Majesty, and to St. George's Hospital. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Cadell.

THE state of the chirurgical art, like that of physick, remained stationary for many ages, till the spirit of enquiry diffusing itself over Europe, the minds of men revolted against the prescriptive authority of the ancients, to which their predecessors had implicitly submitted, and nature and observation became the chief objects of their regard. The prosecution of anatomical knowledge, which revived with fresh vigour at the same epoch of free investigation, contributed not a little to introduce improvements in surgery: and it is probable, that the separation of this profession, which happened in process of time, from another of an illiterate nature, wherewith it had been generally united, served also to increase its prosperity, by rendering the practice of the art more creditable than it had formerly been reputed. Mr. Bromfeild, who takes notice of the advantage which has accrued to surgery from anatomical researches, mentions another circumstance whereby it has, no doubt, been likewise greatly benefited. This is the erection of hospitals in different parts of England, which have opened as it were, so many schools for the advancement of the art. Amidst the auspicious operation of the several causes, however, our author observes, that there are some difficulties, which lie in the way of farther improvement. One is, that an attempt to reform an error in practice often meets with opposition from either the pride or obstinacy of those, who scorn to be taught by others, or think themselves too knowing to need any information; and another obstacle is, a dull and lazy acquiescence in the established methods of operating. There is not any doubt that both these impediments have greatly retarded the progress of surgery to perfection; but, fortunately for mankind, there has been within the present century, some persons among the professors of that art, who scorning the narrow prejudices by which the generality are actuated, have had the fortitude to deviate from the common path of practice, when experience justified the innovation; nor do we hesitate to admit Mr. Bromfeild among this class of reformers. As an instance of the prejudices which have been mentioned, our author puts the question, that, should any man recommend a free use of opium, so as to produce a diaphoresis in a concussion of the brain, would he not be thought either ignorant or insane? He informs us, that the gentleman who first recommended to him the use of opium in fractures of the skull, or concussions of the brain, founded his idea upon the

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success which he had observed in the practice of a celebrated empiric, relative to that medicine; and remarked likewise, that most of the patients who had received hurts of that sort, generally died, where only the usual method of cure, by emptying the vessels, had been adopted.

Mr. Bromfeild candidly acknowledges, that when he considered the assertions of this gentleman, he still felt a reluctance to make the experiment; being influenced by the common prejudice, that opium frequently affected the head in a violent degree, and concluded that it must be improper, where the brain, or its membranes are already disordered from external violence. He adds, however, that if he be now right in supposing that inflammations are frequently caused by spasm, and that the nerves sent to the muscular or vascular fibres may be so irritated as to produce spasm, this doctrine may be worthy of attention; since opium is the most likely remedy to remove a spasmodic complaint. In support of the utility of opium in such cases as have been mentioned, the author observes, that it is a great attenuant of the blood, and must therefore give the fairest chance for the absorption of extravasated fluids, by dividing those detained in the vessels, and fitting them for future circulation. To confirm this effect, he produces the authority of Dr. Mead, who told him, that if women would immediately make use of *tinctura thebaica* freely to their breasts, after contusion from a blow, or other violence received, the extravasated blood would be attenuated and absorbed, and the assistance of the surgeon would seldom be requisite for cancers, consequent to external injuries of those parts. Our author accordingly relates some cases, of hurts done to the skull and brain, in which he has given Dover's powder; but previous to these he informs us, that being at first irresolute, he did not pursue either the former, or new method of practice, with firmness, but fluctuated for some time between the two. For in case the patient was not greatly relieved, or rather entirely freed from his complaint, by the first dose of the medicine, he suspected the second might do mischief. Reflecting however on the impropriety of this desultory and undetermined treatment of such cases, he resolved to persevere boldly in the new method, which was as follows; viz. in case of fulness from a plethoric habit, to take away a few ounces of blood, that by giving room in the vessels, the anodyne sudorific might more surely act as intended; and, if the person were costive, to procure a stool either by clyster, or some lenitive aperitive medicine.

The warm bath, he thinks, is, in general a good preparative for the powder; for by cleansing the skin, it promotes the

the action of the medicine, and, by lying between blankets, perspiration is greatly favoured during its operation, on the conclusion of which, the patient is to be put into well-aired sheets. Should the patient be relieved by this method, a gentle diaphoresis ought to be encouraged by the use of a medicine of the same kind, such as the vin. antimon. with tinctur. thebaic; but, says Mr. Bromfeild, *Aut non tentas, aut perices*, should be the maxim laid down; and indeed, the same ought to be the injunction in every disease where the indication of cure is clear and urgent. He adds, that in general every symptom of concussion of the brain has disappeared on the powders producing a plentiful sweat; and that the medicine was commonly continued, *pro re nata*, till the patient seemed out of danger. Where the symptoms have returned, the medicine was repeated, and the patient did well. He informs us, that though he has given this medicine to hundreds, he never knew any person the worse for taking it; and that two in particular who had fractures of the skull, recovered by this method, without the operation of the trephine being performed. It is proper to make our readers acquainted with the cases on this subject.

‘ A gentleman received a violent blow on the top of his head, from a large weight falling on it, which fractured his skull and depressed it: I attended at the operation, when every possibility of future pressure on the brain from the fractured bone was entirely prevented by the removal of the depressed pieces. He took Dover’s sweating powder, which, he said, always relieved him, when it began to operate. He had stools as often as it was thought necessary, and was bled very freely before I saw him. As the wound did not begin to digest kindly at the usual period, in the intermediate time between the sweats, he took the sal absinthii neutralized with succ. limonum, and a decoction of the bark. About the fifth day he grew comatose, and, the gentleman, whose patient he was, seemed to wish he had been bled again. I desired him to recollect how constantly we consulted the pulse when we met, and, that he had always told me, that in my absence he was never induced to bleed him from fulness; and, from the quiet state of his pulse whenever we met, we judged it unnecessary. This he allowed; but, as the coma was great, I consented to his losing some blood from the jugular vein, which did not make his pulse flag, nor, was he relieved by the bleeding: when I saw him the next day, being the sixth from the accident, he was dying. I did not see the patient after he died; but conclude, that the brain had suffered so much from the violence of the blow, that, let what method soever have been followed, the event in this case would have been the same.

‘ John King, aged thirty-five years, having fallen from a scaffold, was brought to St. George’s hospital, on the 8th of May, 1771, quite senseless. He had received by the fall two large wounds; one on the anterior, the other on the posterior part of his head, and his back was violently bruised: he had bled a little at his nose. Immediately after his admission into the hospital, he was let blood, and, from the administration of a clyster, had two stools, and took

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a scruple of Dover's sweating powder. On the 9th he was more sensible, and complained of great giddiness, with pain in his forehead and back. He was then ordered to take ten drops of the *tinctura anodyna antimonialis* once in four or six hours, as the effect might indicate; a fomentation was applied to his back, a stool procured in the evening by a clyster, and Dover's powder was repeated at bed-time. On the 10th, the giddiness was gone off, the pain was abated, and his head was perfectly easy, the use of the *tinctura anodyna* was continued, and his body kept open by a laxative mixture. On the 11th, he was free from all complaints, granulations began to appear on the wound, which looked well, and the use of the drops were discontinued. He remained well till the 16th, about which time he was seized with giddiness, and a sickness at his stomach. Eight ounces of blood were then taken away, and some stools procured by a purging draught. On the 19th, the giddiness and sickness entirely left him. On the 21st, his sickness returned, with great pain in his head: he was then directed to take a scruple of Dover's powder at night. On the 26th, all his complaints were gone. He was then ordered to take four spoonfuls of the following medicine once in four hours. *R. Sal. absinth. scrup. ii. succ. limon. unc. i. decoct. cort. Peruvian. unc. xiv.* He remained without any return of his complaints, and was discharged on the 12th of June.

Patrick Darbun, aged twenty-six years, was admitted into St. George's hospital the 6th of July 1771, having a large wound on the forepart of his head, and some slight bruises on different parts of his body. He had fallen from a scaffold. It was about an hour after the accident when he was brought to the hospital, where the surgeon was informed, that he had continued senseless for half an hour after the fall, and had vomited twice. He had great pain in the parts that were hurt, with stupor and heaviness. Upon a careful examination of the skull, no fracture could be discovered. Some blood had been taken away before he was brought to the hospital, where a purging mixture was given him, and some stools thereby procured. He then took a scruple of Dover's powder. He complained of great pain in his head, and giddiness, on the seventh, and had had but little rest. The *tinctura anodyna antimonialis* was given him, ten drops of which he took once in four or six hours. He was rather easier in the evening, and the *pulv. Doveri* was repeated at bed-time. On the eighth, he was much better; the use of the drops was continued. On the ninth, the pain in his head and giddiness were quite gone. He continued to take the drops till the twelfth, about which time, he being perfectly well, no more were given. Having remained in the hospital till the thirty-first, without any return of his complaints, and the wound being nearly healed, he was made an out patient by his own desire, and continued perfectly well.

John Hyde, a boy about fourteen years of age, was on the seventh of June, 1771, admitted into St. George's hospital, on account of a hurt he had received on his head by falling backwards. The scalp was much swelled, but without any wound: he complained of giddiness, and vomited frequently. The surgeon made an incision into the tumified part, by which the skull was laid bare, and a fracture, of about an inch in length, discovered upon the superior part of the occipital bone. Some stools were procured as soon as it was possible, by a purging mixture, and afterwards one scruple of Dover's powder was given. He had a pretty good night, and on the

the eighth the vomitings ceased, though the pain in his head and giddiness continued. He was that day directed to take ten drops of the tinctura anodyna antimonialis once in six hours. His giddiness went off entirely in the evening; but he complained of a little pain in the fractured part. A stool was procured by a clyster, and the use of the antimonial anodyne was continued. On the ninth, he was free from pain, and took the antimonial anodyne once in six hours, till the eleventh, during which time he was perfectly well, and afterwards was directed to take the neutral mixture, with a decoction of the Peruvian bark. This course he pursued for about a week, and on the twenty-sixth was made an out-patient. In about three weeks after this, the wound was healed, and the boy perfectly recovered. There was nothing particular in treating the wound, except that the bone was frequently pricked with the point of a proper instrument, to expedite exfoliation.

'I have fairly related things as they were, and shall make no other remark on the facts than this, that had the cases of concussion, which were in the hospital, been fractures of the skull, and the usual openings been made with the trephine, the greater part, I firmly believe, would have died; at least, I may venture to say, it has generally been the case, even under the care of the most able and experienced surgeons, not only of the hospitals in England, but in France, Italy and Germany, where I make no doubt but that evacuations were repeatedly made, as occasion might require. I flatter myself, that some unprejudiced persons of the profession may, like me, be induced to try this method with that firmness, which a sincere inclination to benefit our fellow-creatures requires; and, be the success what it may, it ought to be communicated to those who profess surgery, for the improvement of the art: let truth prevail, though the present doctrine, enjoining great and repeated evacuations, should suffer a little.'

Having reason to believe, that where any lymph had been extravasated, and lodged between the skull and dura-mater, in case any of the futures should remain open, and a dependent situation for the exit of the extravasated fluid obtained, it must be extremely serviceable; the author examined the skulls of various subjects, and found that *additamentum* of the temporal or petrose suture was almost always open; that its situation was the most favourable for any discharge from within the cranium; that it had the advantage, if it be any, of being situated on one of the great sinusses; and that, by an incision made throughout the whole length of this additamentum, discharges might be expected, not only from part of the membrane that covers the cerebrum, but also from that which incloses the cerebellum. The advantages Mr. Bromfeild has known to result from discharges obtained by incisions, made *properly* on this piece of suture, induce him to recommend them strongly, where some symptoms remain in consequence of violent concussions of the brain, of which symptoms extravasation of lymph may be supposed to be the cause; and he observes that they have not been less beneficial in cases of

the *gutta serena*, consequent to extravasated fluid lodged in the optic nerves, after falls, or blows on the head. In epileptic fits, they have likewise been of the greatest service when kept open by peas or gentian root. In proof of their utility in the disease last mentioned, he tells us, that after patients had been greatly relieved by the discharge for a few days, he has filled up the openings with dossils of dry lint rolled very hard, and bound down tight; the consequence of which was, that the symptoms returned as bad as ever. A girl, subject to the epilepsy, was so far relieved by this method, that, after having an hundred fits in a day, she had not more than two in the same space of time, after the opening above recommended had been made, and discharged freely; but, it being doubted whether the benefit arose from the opening on the suture, the fontanel was filled with dry lint, when immediately upon the retention of the discharge, the fits returned as frequently as ever. He informs us, that having mentioned his success to several surgeons, this method was tried by others, and he was told, that, in some patients, it was attended with advantage, in others, not; but in those he saw, where it had not been serviceable, the fault was evidently in the operator, as the openings had not been made exactly on the suture, consequently no discharge from within could be expected.

We have been the more particular in our account of this part of the work, as the observations it contains are of the utmost importance in practice, and greatly merit the attention both of medical and chirurgical readers. In the succeeding chapters the detail is generally full and explicit, it being the design of the author to be useful to such practitioners, who seldom or never have had an opportunity of seeing the operations performed.

The second chapter is employed on amputation, where Mr. Bromfeild very judiciously specifies the cases in which that operation is proper. He also explains the nature, signs, and causes of mortification, gangrene, and inflammation, with the method of treatment.

Mr. Bromfeild here recommends a very proper method for determining from the pulse whether or not the patient is plethoric, which being of great use in practice, we shall present to our readers.

From what has been said, it is extremely obvious, that an artery over-charged with blood, is as incapable of producing a strong full pulse, for want of its contracting on the contained fluid, and getting rid of the additional quantity thrown into it by the systole of the ventricle of the heart, as for the want of a due quantity for its distention; for, proportionate to the influx into the vascular system, will be the reaction of the coats on the contained fluid: there-

therefore, in both cases, a low and weak pulse will appear to an inaccurate observer, and a patient may be lost, or mischief ensue, by not critically determining at first, whether the artery be overcharged or not.

'In order to discover this, the pulse must not be felt with one or two fingers on the carpal artery, for by equal pressure on the vessel we may be deceived; but, if three or four fingers cover a considerable length of artery, and we press hard for a time on it, and then suddenly raise all the fingers, but that nearest to the patient's hand, the influx of the blood, if there be a plethora, will be so rapid, as to raise the other finger, and make us sensible of the fullness.'

In the third chapter he treats of tumours arising either from fluxion or congestion; in the fourth, of the Erysipelas; in the fifth, of the Anthrax, where we also meet with many useful remarks on amputation. The sixth chapter is on the Reduction of the *os brachii* when dislocated; after which there is an appendix, containing, chiefly, observations on hæmorrhages consequent to amputation.

[*To be continued.*]

III. *The Elements of Commerce, Politics, and Finances, in Three Treatises on those important Subjects. Designed as a Supplement to the Education of British Youth, after they quit the public Universities or private Academies. By Thomas Mortimer, Esq.* 4to. 181. Boards. Hooper. [Concluded.]

AFTER delineating the theory of inland trade, Mr. Mortimer enters on the subject of universal commerce, where he enquires on what principles it must be conducted, and applies its general elements to the commercial interests of Great Britain and her colonies. Exportation and importation are particularly considered in this part of the work, and the author delivers the most approved mercantile maxims and regulations by which those may be managed to the greatest advantage. He observes, that we ought to export our natural products in the most improved state they will bear, as this economy affords encouragement to arts and manufactures, which are essential objects of commerce. That in our exportations, we must not only take care to send out the superfluities our own people can best spare, but we must pay attention to the necessities of those countries that demand our commodities. That, as far as is consistent with the political freedom of commerce, we ought to make our exports in our own ships; for by this means they will be rendered of threefold advantage to the state. First, their intrinsic value: secondly, the profits of freight and insurance: and, thirdly, the multiplication of our

seamen. That we ought to give the preference to those exports which are made to the most remote countries from the place where the commodities are shipped; the length of the voyage increasing the burthen of the shipping, the profit on freight, the number of mariners, and the value of the exports, so as to render the commerce more beneficial both to individuals and the community, than any other carried on with countries less remote. That those exports will be highly advantageous which are made to countries that supply us, in return, with the first materials for our arts and manufactures, with any necessaries of life for home-consumption, or any commodities for exportation to other countries. He observes, that a treble freight arises from this kind of barter, which renders it more advantageous to the individuals concerned, and to the state in general, than even returns in specie, especially since bills of exchange have become so common. That the exportation of our natural products and manufactures should be free from all duties.

That if, from the particular circumstances of a nation, it be found necessary to depart from this maxim, great care should be taken, that the business of the merchants-exporters may not suffer any obstruction at the custom-house, through embarrassing formalities. That it is sometimes necessary to give bounties on our natural products and manufactures proper for exportation, as an encouragement to industry.

Among the various considerations which Mr. Mortimer mentions relative to exportation, he lays it down as a true commercial principle, that it is beneficial to export bullion and coin, as well as the natural products and manufactures of a country; and that such commerce contributes to increase our riches, instead of exhausting them, contrary to an opinion which has been maintained by some political writers. As many of our readers may be desirous of perusing the author's arguments on this subject, we shall here extract the passage in which it is discussed.

It has been a popular error for ages, to exclaim against sending bullion and coin out of the kingdom of Great Britain; and the millions of bullion exported to India, till within these few years, was one of the heaviest complaints brought against the East India company. It is generally supposed, that money carried out of the realm creates a loss of so much treasure on the balance of trade; and also that it is a direct violation of an act of parliament made to prevent it. The example of Spain (the source of money) is brought to prove that the exportation of it is impolitic.

But it is observed, on the other hand, that Venice, Florence, Genoa, and Holland, permit it, and find the greatest benefits from making it an article of commerce.

Those

“ Those who wrote against the exportation of bullion formerly, had no conception of the vast fabric of mercantile credit, which has since been erected upon the honour and good faith of the reputable merchants of all the commercial states of Europe. They could have no idea of our extensive paper-circulation, both at home and abroad, which has quite altered the face of commercial affairs, and enabled us to export bullion and coin on advantageous terms, while an eighth part of the quantity of coin formerly required, is sufficient for the purposes of internal circulation.

“ And those, who are so obstinate as to maintain at present, the theory of prohibiting the exportation of coin and bullion, know very little of the nature of commercial credit and paper-currency, both of which are substituted in the place of the precious metals, and have such an influence on the operations of inland trade, that they leave the merchants at full liberty to export a reasonable quantity of bullion and coin, without prejudicing the commercial interests of the state.

“ It is now universally known, that it is not any given quantity of the precious metals, carefully kept in a nation, and prohibited to be exported out of it, that makes such a nation the richer. The very reverse is experienced in Spain, which, with all its mines of gold and silver, is poor and feeble: whereas some free states, particularly that of Holland, by trading with money, have created treasures, and increased both the natural and relative riches of their country. The mistake lies, and a very great one it is, in supposing that the balance of trade is always to be formed by estimating the quantity of the precious metals we receive in that balance; whereas the true balance consists in the amount of our good debts abroad, and of our marketable merchandize at home, over and above what we owe to other nations.

“ The ultimate balance of trade is reckoned in money; and it is by this scale that the profits of trade are usually computed. But as money itself is of no farther use, but merely as a kind of instrument for the circulation of products or commodities, a very beneficial commerce may be carried on between two different nations, without any of them having any money to receive at the close of their accounts. Not only the mariners navigating the ships, but also the whole train of artificers employed in the various branches of manufactures, bred and nourished by such a commerce, innumerable brokers, &c. gain all of them a comfortable subsistence; each country is accommodated with what it wanted of the products of the other, and the merchants on all sides increase in wealth, though at last their accounts are even as to money, or yet though one pays a balance in money to the other.

“ Each merchant is a gainer, and so is his country, if his returns, after paying all his expences of the voyage, are worth more at home, or will purchase again a greater quantity of goods than he had exported.

“ A balance paid in money doth not necessarily infer a loss by commerce. Suppose that last year Great Britain paid a balance upon the whole of its foreign trade, of one hundred thousand pounds in specie, but that the national stock of necessaries, of valuable materials for our manufactures, of naval stores for our security, and of commodities proper to be re-exported to advantage, were augmented to double that amount; by the vulgar erroneous way of reckoning, we must have lost the last year one hundred thousand pounds by our commerce; yet it must be evident to every

rational man, that we have gained, by this course of foreign exchanges, no less than one hundred thousand pounds; and it might so happen, that we could not have made this gain, without exporting bullion and coin, as well as paying a final balance in them.

For instance, if a ship is bound to a port, partly laden with corn from Great Britain, and having other merchandize on board for a different country; does it follow, if the owner or master knows that he can take in, at the port where he is to deliver his corn, double the amount in materials for the manufactures of his country, that he shall not carry out a sum of money to purchase commodities, that will prove profitable to him, and add to the valuable stock of his country.

In fine, there are but two reasonable exceptions to the exportation of coin; the one is, when so great a quantity is carried out, that there is not a sufficient currency in the nation, to be the medium of our internal exchanges at home,

It is supposed this has frequently been the case with respect to our silver coin: but it is a mistake: our silver coin is hoarded by the bank, by bankers, pay-offices, &c, as an expedient against extraordinary, unforeseen, sudden demands, that they may avoid the discredit of stopping payment, by making satisfaction in silver—an operation which gains time, and affords an opportunity for the fresh receipts of money to balance the extra-demand.

The second exception is, when money is sent out of the kingdom, never to be returned in profitable commodities, or indeed in any. This is the case, when travellers carry it out to expend in foreign countries, which have no commerce with us; or to bestow it on countries, whose inhabitants are our natural rivals in arts and arms; thereby furnishing them with the sinews of war, and one of the resources of commerce. The law has wisely provided a remedy against this evil, by empowering the collectors of the customs, or their searchers, to seize any sums of gold coin, amounting to one hundred guineas, found in the baggage of any person about to leave the kingdom, not declared, and duly entered (by licence) as an article of commerce. But this law, like many others, is become obsolete, through indolence, and a false indulgence to persons of high rank, who go to France, Italy, and the Spa in Germany, for health or pleasure.

We entirely coincide in opinion with Mr. Mortimer, respecting the commercial advantages which may result from the exportation of bullion and coin, provided that so great a quantity is not exported, as to reduce the currency below such a proportion as is requisite for the operations of internal trade. When carefully confined within such limits, the exportation of them is certainly justifiable upon the principles of commerce; but it must be acknowledged, that the difficulty of ascertaining the precise degree to which these exports may be carried, without producing public inconvenience, will be greater with respect to the abovementioned articles, than any of the other objects of commerce.

Our author next investigates the maxims of importation, which he also arranges under several heads. He observes, that the first objects of importation in a manufacturing country is the

the raw materials to be employed in their various works of art and industry. That no import duties should be laid on such articles entering the nation where they are wanted. That, if such encouragement be found requisite, bounties must be given to the merchants importing these articles. That the importations of a manufacturing country must chiefly consist of the products of other countries in their native state, or with as little labour as possible bestowed on them. That in general, the imports of manufactured commodities should be admitted only from countries receiving from the importers a greater quantity, and more in value, of their natural products or manufactures. That imports of manufactured commodities, from the countries which consume your most staple commodities, should be encouraged, even though you have manufactures of the same articles at home, provided that you lay a duty of at least fifteen per cent. on the imported commodities. That imports of manufactured commodities, from countries which do not consume any of the manufactures of the country importing them, ought to be entered only for re-exportation. That clandestine importations should be prevented by the severest laws; and that all merchandize, imported solely for the purpose of re-exportation to other countries, should be enterable duty free.

Mr. Mortimer afterwards enquires into the effects resulting to the community from public commercial companies. In treating of this subject, he admits, that limited companies are not alone sufficient to preserve and increase trade, and that such companies may lose a trade, by the mismanagement of their affairs; but he positively denies that trade can be carried on, and increased, without companies.

For confirmation of this opinion, he appeals to the flourishing situation of our inland trade, and universal commerce, under the operation of such monopolies; and insists that public commercial companies and corporations are beneficial, equitable, and compatible with the freedom of the British constitution.

Colonies are the subject which the author next investigates, and he justly concludes from this enquiry, that our American colonies are establishments on the truest principles of commerce, and that they are the primary source of the maritime strength, riches, and prosperity of Great Britain.

In treating of assurance, or insurance, the author, with great justice, gives the preference to the two companies, viz. the Royal Exchange, and the London Assurance. Private underwriters of policies of insurance, he remarks, are for the most part men of the first reputation and fortunes in the city

of London; but being most commonly merchants, they are liable to the various accidents attendant on commercial transactions. In the three succeeding articles, the author treats of the ballance of commerce; the administration of commercial affairs; and the education, accomplishments, and character of a British merchant.

In the treatise on Politics we are presented with an account of the origin of governments, their different species, and the peculiar advantages of the British constitution, &c. But these subjects are so generally understood, that we shall not trouble our readers with any analysis of this part of the work.

The Elements of Finances afford our author much scope for disquisitions of the most interesting nature to the public, and these he appears to have investigated with particular attention. He first presents us with an historical account of the ancient methods of acquiring public revenues for the service of government, and of the introduction of military aids, personal services and contributions in kind, into Europe, after the dissolution of the Roman empire. He deduces the origin of bills of exchange from the Jews, who were impolitically banished from some European states, and fixed their residence chiefly in Lombardy, which thereby became the centre of credit and pecuniary transactions. This subject leads Mr. Mortimer to the consideration of the public credit of Great Britain, and the funding system that supports it: in treating of which he investigates the nature, solidity, present extent, and national advantages of these important articles of financing; remarking the objections which have been made against them by the most eminent political writers, and endeavouring to demonstrate, that the apprehension entertained of any bad consequences from our exorbitant national debt, is absolutely vain and illusory. He declares himself totally against every project for paying off the national debt, which he estimates not by the sums originally borrowed by government, (the capital not being demandable) but merely by the amount of the interest, which is paid in annuities.

Mr. Mortimer, conformably to his idea that the national debt consists in the yearly rents to be paid to the creditors, and in nothing more, maintains that the sinking fund ought never to be applied to discharge the capitals originally borrowed, but for other purposes of greater advantage, such as the extinguishing the most burthensome of our taxes, or making provision in times of public tranquillity, for the future exigencies of the state.

The Elements of Finances conclude with remarks on taxation, and the best means of improving the public revenues. In this
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part of the work, the author points out several defects in the mode of levying our taxes, and frauds in the administration of the customs; giving likewise hints for abolishing the taxes on the necessaries of life, and for substituting others in their room.

With respect to this work in general, the Elements of Commerce, Politics, and Finances are here delineated in a perspicuous and methodical manner, and the author has illustrated, by apposite examples, such principles of these sciences as appear at first sight to be either repugnant or less obvious to common apprehension. On the several subjects of which he treats, he has canvassed the sentiments of the most eminent writers with freedom and candour; and where he dissents from their authority, his conclusions are supported by just and rational arguments. The work will certainly be useful to those who would acquire a competent knowledge of political œconomy; and several hints are thrown out on finances, which we could wish to see adopted by government.

V. *Practical Observations on the Child Bed Fever: also on the Nature and Treatment of Uterine Hæmorrhages, Convulsions, and such other acute Diseases, as are most fatal to Women during the State of Pregnancy.* By John Leake, M. D. 8vo. 6s. Walter.

THE child-bed, or puerperal fever has lately been treated of by several medical writers, but by none in a more satisfactory manner than the author now under our consideration. Unprejudiced in favour of any hypothesis, Dr. Leake appears to have formed his opinion of the nature of this disease, and conducted his practice, by the firm and incontrovertible authority of clinical observation. We regard this treatise, therefore, as the most decisive with respect to the ascertainment of the proximate cause, and method of cure, of the child-bed fever; a subject which has been variously agitated, and where the judgment of many has been misled, by mistaking concomitant or accidental, for the essential and pathognomonic symptoms of the disease.

The period of time in which these observations were chiefly made was from April 1768, to the autumn of the year 1770; but the most epidemical season commenced with December 1769, and ended about the middle of May 1770.

In the first section of the work, we are presented with the history of the child-bed fever, deduced from the symptoms, and from an examination of the morbid appearances after death; together with its nature and cause, as resulting from that detail. Previous to the history of the disease, however, the

The author has given a short account of the weather, with a view to discover how far the symptoms might be affected by its influence, during those months in which it was most epidemical. This meteorological account begins at October 1769, and ends with May 1770; from the consideration of the weather in which period Dr. Leake observes, that the remark of Hippocrates proved just, viz. that a mild rainy winter, succeeded by northerly winds in the spring, was dangerous to pregnant women.

The history here delivered of the disease is clear and accurate, and is the more to be depended upon, as it was taken from the symptoms, when the patient was assisted only by medicines of the simplest kind; the author properly observing, that the history of a disease will always best be known, where so little has been done by art, that the operations of nature remain free and undisturbed.

Dr. Leake remarks, that, through the whole course of the disease, the lochia were not obstructed nor deficient in quantity, neither did the discharge seem to be in the least degree altered, in point of quality, from its natural state; a circumstance which, he observes, afforded a presumption that the uterus was not at all affected. Of this he was convinced, by making a considerable pressure above the pubes with the hand, which did not occasion pain; but when the same degree of pressure was made higher, between the stomach and umbilical region, it became almost intolerable. He is also of opinion, that the uterus does not suffer by sympathy, in proportion with the other parts; the truth of which observation he endeavours to confirm in a future section.

After minutely relating the history of the fever, our author enters into an examination of its cause, and particularly considers the opinions entertained on that subject by Van Swieten, Levret, and Hoffman; the two former of whom supposed that the disease was produced by metastasis, or a morbid translocation of the corrupted milk, or putrid obstructed lochia to the brain, or to the contents of the thorax or abdomen; occasioning such disorders as were peculiar to those parts. Hoffman, on the other hand, imagined that it arose from an inflammation of the uterus. With respect to these opinions, Dr. Leake observes, that they are very exceptionable and inadequate, and not consistent with the true nature of the disease. To prove this assertion, he first considers when, and in what manner, the milk is strained off in the breasts, and what are its qualities when pure or vitiated. From this physiological inquiry, the doctor infers, that, if ever the child-bed fever is occasioned by a reflux of milk, such an accident can

happen only when the milk has been deprived of its balsamic quality, by too great a degree of animal heat, or by stagnating too long in its vessels. But in opposition to this doctrine, our author observes, that the disease is sometimes so suddenly produced, and attended with such remarkable and instantaneous loss of strength, as appears by the history of the symptoms, that there is neither sufficient time for the secretion of milk, nor for any morbid change of that fluid. Dr. Leake admits, that the milk may become depraved by various causes, and sometimes produce a fever, which, however, in general, is soon carried off by some critical evacuation, as a diarrhoea, or miliary eruption; and he contends, that the fever so excited is very essentially different from that under consideration; the first, being infinitely more mild in its symptoms, and for the most part, void of danger; he never yet having known one to die in consequence of it. We shall lay before our readers the remaining arguments, produced by the doctor in refutation of this fever being occasioned by the absorption of the milk; and likewise the practical facts by which these arguments are supported.

‘ Levret also has observed, that where the milk suddenly disappeared at the beginning of the disease, and afterwards soon returned, the patient was relieved; but whenever this circumstance happens with a mitigation of the symptoms, it most assuredly is owing to a cessation of the febrile cause, which no longer interrupts the secretion of that fluid, and which, therefore, will naturally return.

‘ When the breasts subside, and the milk naturally goes off, or is repelled in those who do not intend to suckle; the lochial discharge may be observed to increase and become more fresh and sanguineous; and also continues for a longer time than in those who do; it therefore appears, that, at this time, a plethora prevails in the constitution, which may fall upon the interior vessels, when the milk does not freely pass through the glands of the breasts; or even should no milk be strained off, the want of it will dispose the habit to a plethoric state; for this reason, women, who do not suckle, are visited with a return of the menses, even sometimes so early as in the fifth week after delivery; whereas, in those who give suck, they are naturally wanting for several months.

‘ Hence also it is manifest, that the female organs, after a certain age, are so disposed as to prepare a larger quantity of blood than is necessary for the support and nourishment of the body; which in the time of uterine gestation is consumed by the foetus, and after delivery, by the child at the breast; but that this redundant quantity might not incommode the constitution, during the time she is not pregnant, provident nature has ordered it off by the vessels of the uterus, once every month.

‘ The milk, indeed, is not supposed to be strained off from the blood, but as the separation of that fluid deprives the woman's body of so much chyle, which would otherwise be converted into blood, the consequence, in respect to her general habit, or the fullness of the vessels, will be exactly the same.

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* Presuming therefore, that suckling after delivery, would lessen the tendency to inflammation and fever, by diminishing the fullness of the uterine vessels, as well as those of the contiguous viscera; an order which had formerly been made by the governors of the Westminster Lying-in Hospital, at my request, that every patient during her stay in the house, should suckle her child, was at this time, more particularly insisted upon: for, if the disease was occasioned by a translocation of milk to the interior parts, it would then follow, that women, who had plenty of that fluid, and in whom it was freely discharged by suckling, would, of all others, be the least subject to it; but this caution was insufficient to secure them from the fever; for many, who had plenty of milk and suckled their children, were also invaded by it.

* But to come to practical facts: in many women there was a plentiful secretion of milk, which continued till the fever was considerably advanced, and sometimes it lasted till within a day or two of their death; in some few, where the milk was either small in quantity, or totally deficient, no such fever appeared; and in those cases where it did, it generally came on before there was any want of milk; which therefore, was evidently the effect and not the cause of the disease.

* Besides, if this fever was owing to a translocation of milk from the breasts, it would also frequently happen to women who wean their children at the end of seven or eight months, which is contrary to experience: the case mentioned by Van Swieten, of such a morbid absorption of that fluid, in a woman a whole year after delivery, in whose pelvis a milky matter was found, only proves what possibly may, and not what usually does happen.

* Indeed, from the most careful examination of the morbid appearances, in the several bodies which were opened, I have the greatest reason to believe, that what has usually been taken for coagulated milk, lying on the surface of the intestines, is nothing but pure matter, owing to the suppuration of the omentum; and therefore, of a peculiar kind; having a more white, thick, and curd-like appearance, than that of common matter: as to what is called serum lactis, it seems to be only a purulent, whey-coloured fluid, collected in the cavity of the abdomen, by a morbid transudation from the inflamed viscera; or else lymph grown putrid by stagnating too long there, from a defect in the absorbing power of the lymphatic vessels.

The author next examines the doctrine of an obstruction of the lochia being the cause of the fever; and this opinion he invalidates, by reasons equally forcible and conclusive with those which have been produced against the foregoing hypothesis. He shews that the lochia is nothing more than a simple discharge from those vessels which are left patulous by the separation of the placenta and uterus, and does not naturally partake of a sanious or malignant quality, as generally supposed by the ancients. He informs us, that he has often observed the lochia small in quantity, and at other times redundant, without any bad consequence; so that the indication of danger ought not to be taken from the quantity of the discharge, but from the nature of the symptoms attending it. In
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treating of this subject, he animadverts on the pernicious practice of giving emenagogue medicines to promote the lochia, in a tense state of the uterine fibres. For, being chiefly of the healing kind, he observes, that the use of them in such circumstances is equally improper and dangerous with that of forcing medicines given in nephritic cases, during the height of pain and inflammation.

Dr. Leake remarks, that the fever produced by an inflammation of the uterus, has often been confounded with the child-bed fever; but these diseases are essentially different, though they both require the same method of treatment. When the uterus is inflamed, he observes, it often becomes gangrenous, the head is affected with pain, a delirium usually attends the fever, and the uterine region is so extremely tender as not to bear the gentlest pressure without intolerable pain: on the contrary, in the child-bed fever, the head is seldom disordered, the uterus is not affected with pain, inflammation, or gangrene, nor does a delirium commonly accompany the disease. To the general signs of an inflamed uterus, the author adds some others mentioned by *Ætius*.

The second section contains practical observations and inferences arising from the history of the disease, with the methods most conducive to the cure. The author here maintains, that bleeding is the only remedy which can give the patient a chance for life, and that the reasons for that evacuation are as manifest and cogent in this disease as in the pleurisy itself.

Our author observes, that the progress of this disease is often so rapid, that there is not sufficient time to wait for a regular or distinct intermission, as in other fevers; and therefore, if the Peruvian bark is given at all, that must be done at the most favourable opportunity. This period he fixes to the decline of the fever, when the disease becomes a true *febris purulenta*, from the absorption of the corrupted fluids stagnating in the cavity of the abdomen, though at the beginning, the disorder was strictly of the inflammatory kind. In this situation, he pronounces that the bark ought to be given at all events; and to remove the apprehension of its suppressing the lochia, he declares himself to be assured from repeated experience, that it may be given to women after delivery, with great safety whenever it is necessary; for, that he never could observe it to produce any bad effect, or diminish that discharge; on the contrary, it often altered its quality for the better, and seemed also rather to increase its quantity, especially in women who were weak and delicate.

In the third section, the author treats of the prophylactic method, or means contributing to prevent the disease, where he
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suggests many rational and salutary rules for that purpose; and in the fourth section, the history and treatment of the disease are farther illustrated by particular cases, with animadversions and remarks on the whole. The cases here related are fourteen in number, which are clearly and accurately drawn up.

With respect to this treatise on the child bed fever, we shall conclude with observing in general, that the theory of the disease which Dr. Leake would establish, is strongly supported by the history of the symptoms, and the morbid appearances after death; and that the practice he recommends, however different, in the free use of bleeding, from the method of cure advised by other writers, is equally well authorised by urgent indications, and its utility confirmed by success.

The fifth section of this volume is employed on the nature and cause of uterine hæmorrhages, and their treatment before and after delivery: a subject of which medical writers have hitherto imperfectly treated. After laying before the reader such general remedies as have been thought most conducive to the relief of this dangerous malady; and pointing out the pernicious tendency of a heating regimen, or the exhibition of cordial medicines, Dr. Leake endeavours to shew the good effects of a contrary method, as supported both by reason and experience. It is the application of intense cold to the body, which he thinks is more to be depended upon, and will produce a more salutary effect in uterine hæmorrhages, than any thing else which can be devised. He thus obviates an objection which may be made to this mode of practice.

‘As cold affects the body by contracting the solids, and repelling the blood to the interior parts; it may be said, that its action will be equally pernicious with that of styptics: admitting this reasoning as unanswerable; since I have always found it otherwise in practice, I can pay no manner of regard to it; but the fact seems to be this; when the body is heated, the circulating power is increased, and the blood is not only rarified and rendered more fluid, but its vessels being dilated, if they at last give way, will then discharge their contents the more freely; but when it is suddenly chilled, although the application of cold may contract and lessen the capacity of its vessels, it condenses the blood at the same time, so that in effect, they will not become fuller than before; besides, as I have always observed, that the flux of blood abated in proportion to the degree of cold; experience, which ought to supersede all theory, seems to shew, that the effect of cold in condensing the fluids, is far more than equal to its power in contracting the solids; or at least, that the danger already hinted at, is not to be feared.’

Dr. Leake seems to have taken the original idea of this practice from an experiment related by Dr. Stevenson in the Edinburgh Medical Essays, respecting the effects of heat on the hu-

Leake's *Practical Observations on the Child-Bed Fever*, Sec. 11,
human body; and from a practical observation of Van Swieten,
shewing the action of cold, in constringing the vessels of the
uterus, and suppressing the menses, even when applied to the
feet only. From these two premises our author proposes the
following question: viz.

'If the topical application of cold to the feet, has been found
to put an immediate stop to the habitual discharge of blood from
the uterus, in opposition to the powerful efforts of nature; is there
not the greatest reason to believe, that the same application would
prove singularly efficacious, either in restraining, or totally taking
away that hæmorrhage from the womb, which is preternatural;
and where nature, ever attentive to her own designs, is therefore
also endeavouring to assist herself.'

In regard to the experiment of Dr. Stevenson, we are not
satisfied that the symptoms consequent to the use of the *podiluvium*
were the effect of a warmth communicated to the mass
of blood by the heat of the water. It seems to us more prob-
able, that the expansion of the vascular system, and the en-
creased velocity of the circulation, were produced by the quan-
tity of water absorbed during the time of immersion, rather
than by any action of that fluid on the surface of the body.
But though we are therefore inclined to question the validity of
Dr. Leake's argument, respecting the inference he derives from
that experiment, we freely acquiesce in the apparent propriety
of his ingenious proposal, as being much countenanced by the
practical observation of Van Swieten. The proposal to which
we allude is the method of cure, suggested by our author for
uterine hæmorrhages, of plunging the feet into cold water.
In such cases, however, Dr. Leake advises also the joint use of
cold air, draughts of cold water, and the application of com-
presses, dipped in cold vinegar, to the belly and loins; and these
auxiliary remedies have been attended with so great success, that
out of near *Seven Hundred Women* delivered in the *Westminster*
Lying-Inn Hospital, several of whom were seized with floodings,
both before and after delivery, not one failed under this treat-
ment, as far as it was prudent to trust to it, or any other
means, independent of delivery itself. For ascertaining by
farther experience, the success of the method proposed, of
curing uterine hæmorrhages by *Cold*, Dr. Leake requests of the
gentlemen of the profession, that they will communicate to
him their practical observations on that subject; and it is much
to be wished, that a doctrine of so great importance were esta-
blished by a variety of cases.

The last section of the volume treats of convulsions, and
the acute diseases most fatal to women during the state of
pregnancy. As in the former parts, so likewise here we meet
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with many useful observations, for which we refer our readers to the work itself; where they will find both much ingenuity and strength of argument, and behold physiology and practical experience mutually illustrated by each other.

VI. *The History of Hindostan, from the Death of Ackbar, to the complete Settlement of the Empire under Aurungzebe. To which are prefixed, I. A Dissertation on the Origin and Nature of Despotism in Hindostan. II. An Enquiry into the State of Bengal; With a Plan for restoring that Kingdom to its former Prosperity and Splendor. By Alexander Dow, Esq. 4to. 11. 1s. Boards. Becket and De Hondt.*

THE preceding part of this work, of which we gave an account in the Twenty-sixth volume of our Review, was a translation from the history of Ferishta, a writer of Delhi, who flourished about the beginning of the last century, and whose narration concluded with the reign of Akbar. In the volume now before us, Mr. Dow appears no longer in the character of a translator, but in that of an original historian. He derives his facts chiefly from Eastern writers, but he has also paid attention to the occasional information of intelligent Europeans, who travelled the last century into India. He relies upon the authority of the latter with regard to facts of which they had ocular evidence: he prefers the accounts of the former in matters of traditional testimony.

In the year 1605 of the Christian æra, or the 1014th of the Hegira, Akbar was succeeded in the imperial dignity by his son Selim, who assumed the titles of Noor-ul-dien Mahommed Jehangire, or, Mahommed, the Light of the Faith; and Conqueror of the World. This prince had scarcely mounted the throne, when a rebellion was excited by some discontented nobles in favour of his son Chusero. A proposal was made by the ringleaders of assassinating Jehangire, but coming to the knowledge of Chusero, he rejected it with horror, and determined to prosecute the attempt of dethroning his father by the chance of open war. After committing some ravages, however, the insurgents are totally defeated, and Chusero is taken prisoner, together with several of the conspirators.

When brought before the emperor, and questioned about his advisers and abettors in the rebellion, the young prince, with a broken voice, generously replied, 'Father, my crime is great, but let me suffer for it alone. When you accused me, I was sensible of my faults; and, as I was reconciled with
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the loss of life, I behaved with dignity. But when you raise the remembrance of my friends, I am troubled at their fate. Let them escape as they can; I will never become their accuser.'—We shall lay before our readers the story of Chaja Aiafs, which is related in the account of this reign, and presents us with a romantic instance of adversity, succeeded by a surprising change of fortune.

About twenty years before this period, Chaja Aiafs, a native of the western Tartary, left that country to push his fortune in Hindostan. He was descended of an ancient and noble family, fallen into decay by various revolutions of fortune. He, however, had received a good education, which was all his parents could bestow. Falling in love with a young woman as poor as himself, he married her; but he found it difficult to provide for her the very necessaries of life. Reduced to the last extremity, he turned his thoughts upon India, the usual resource of the needy Tartars of the north. He left privately friends, who either would not or could not assist him, and turned his face to a foreign country. His all consisted of one sorry horse, and a very small sum of money, which had proceeded from the sale of his other effects. Placing his wife upon the horse, he walked by her side. She happened to be with child, and could ill endure the fatigue of so great a journey. Their scanty pittance of money was soon expended: they had even subsisted, for some days, upon charity, when they arrived on the skirts of the Great Solitudes, which separate Tartary from the dominions of the family of Timur, in India. No house was there to cover them from the inclemency of the weather; no hand to relieve their wants. To return, was certain misery; to proceed, apparent destruction.

They had fasted three days: to complete their misfortunes, the wife of Aiafs was taken in labour. She began to reproach her husband for leaving his native country at an unfortunate hour; for exchanging a quiet, though poor life, for the ideal prospect of wealth in a distant country. In this distressed situation she brought forth a daughter. They remained in the place for some hours, with a vain hope that travellers might pass that way. They were disappointed. Human feet seldom tread these deserts: the sun declined apace. They feared the approach of night: the place was the haunt of wild beasts; and should they escape their hunger, they must fall by their own. Chaja Aiafs, in this extremity, having placed his wife on the horse, found himself so much exhausted that he could scarcely move. To carry the child was impossible: the mother could not even hold herself fast on the horse. A long contest began between humanity and necessity: the latter prevailed, and they agreed to expose the child on the highway. The infant, covered with leaves, was placed under a tree; and the disconsolate parents proceeded in tears.

When they had advanced about a mile from the place, and the eyes of the mother could no longer distinguish the solitary tree under which she had left her daughter, she gave way to grief; and throwing herself from the horse on the ground, exclaimed, "My child! my child!" She endeavoured to raise herself; but she had no strength to return. Aiafs was pierced to the heart. He prevailed upon his wife to sit down. He promised to bring her the infant. He arrived at the place. No sooner had his eyes reached the

child, than he was almost struck dead with horror. A black snake, say our authors, was coiled around it; and Aiafs believed he beheld him extending his fatal jaws to devour the infant. The father rushed forward. The serpent, alarmed at his vociferation, retired into the hollow tree. He took up his daughter unhurt, and returned to the mother. He gave her child into her arms; and, as he was informing her of the wonderful escape of the infant, some travellers appeared, and soon relieved them of all their wants. They proceeded gradually and came to Lahore.

The emperor Akbar, at the arrival of Aiafs, kept his court at Lahore. Asiph Chan, one of that monarch's principal omrahs, attended then the presence. He was a distant relation to Aiafs, and he received him with attention and friendship. To employ him, he made him his own secretary. Aiafs soon recommended himself to Asiph in that station; and, by some accident, his diligence and ability attracted the notice of the emperor, who raised him to the command of a thousand horse. He became, in process of time, master of the household; and his genius being still greater than even his good fortune, he raised himself to the office and title of *actimâd-ul-dowla*, or high treasurer of the empire. Thus he, who had almost perished through mere want in the desert, became, in the space of a few years, the first subject in India.

The daughter, who had been born to Aiafs in the desert, received, soon after his arrival at Lahore, the name of *Mher-ul-Nissa*, or the Sun of Women. She had some right to the appellation; for in beauty she excelled all the ladies of the East. She was educated with the utmost care and attention. In music, in dancing, in poetry, in painting, she had no equal among her sex. Her disposition was volatile, her wit lively and satirical, her spirit lofty and uncontrouled. Selim, the prince-royal, visited one day her father. When the public entertainment was over, when all, except the principal guests were withdrawn, and wine was brought on the table, the ladies, according to custom, were introduced in their veils.

The ambition of *Mher-ul-Nissa* aspired to a conquest of the prince. She sung—he was in raptures: she danced—he could hardly be restrained, by the rules of decency, to his place. Her stature, her shape, her gait had raised his ideas of her beauty to the highest pitch. When his eyes seemed to devour her, she, as by accident, dropt her veil; and shone upon him, at once, with all her charms. The confusion, which she could well feign, on the occasion, heightened the beauty of her face. Her timid eye by stealth fell upon the prince, and kindled all his soul into love. He was silent for the remaining part of the evening: she endeavoured to confirm, by her wit, the conquest which the charms of her person had made.

The passion which the emperor conceived for this lady proved fatal to *Shere Afkun*, a Turkomanian nobleman of great renown, to whom she had been betrothed by her father. Some extraordinary stratagems for removing him having failed of success, he was basely assassinated by the order of *Jehangire*, who afterwards married the lady. One of these stratagems was of so uncommon a kind, and displays so much the intrepidity of *Shere Afkun*, that we shall extract the account of it.

• *Jehan-*

* Jehangire kept his court at Delhi, when he called Shere Afkun to the presence. He received him graciously, and conferred new honours upon him. Shere Afkun, naturally open and generous, suspected not the emperor's intentions. Time, he thought, had erased the memory of Mher-ul-Nissa from Jehangire's mind. He was deceived. The monarch was resolved to remove his rival; but the means he used were, at once, foolish and disgraceful. He appointed a day for hunting; and ordered the haunt of an enormous tiger to be explored. News was soon brought, that a tiger of an extraordinary size was discovered in the forest of Nidarbari. This savage, it was said, had carried off many of the largest oxen from the neighbouring villages. The emperor directed thither his march, attended by Shere Afkun, and several thousands of his principal officers, with all their trains. Having, according to the custom of the Mogul Tartars, surrounded the ground for many miles, they began to move towards the center, on all sides. The tiger was roused. His roaring was heard in all quarters: and the emperor hastened to the place.

'The nobility being assembled, Jehangire called aloud, "Who among you will advance singly and attack this tiger?" They looked on one another in silence: then all turned their eyes on Shere Afkun. He seemed not to understand their meaning: at length three omrahs started forth from the circle, and sacrificing fear to shame, fell at the emperor's feet, and begged permission to try singly their strength against the formidable animal. The pride of Shere Afkun arose. He imagined that none durst attempt a deed so dangerous. He hoped, that after the refusal of the nobles, the honour of the enterprize would devolve in course on his hands. But three had offered themselves for the combat: and they were bound in honour to insist on their prior right. Afraid of losing his former renown, Shere Afkun began thus in the presence: "To attack an animal with weapons is both unmanly and unfair. God has given to man limbs and sinews as well as to tygers: he has added reason to the former to conduct his strength." The other omrahs objected in vain, "That all men were inferior to the tiger in strength; and that he could be overcome only with steel." "I will convince you of your mistake," Shere Afkun replied: and, throwing down his sword and shield, prepared to advance unarmed.

'Though the emperor was, in secret, pleased with a proposal full of danger to Shere, he made a shew of dissuading him from the enterprize. Shere was determined. The monarch, with feigned reluctance, yielded. Men knew not whether they ought most to admire the courage of the man, or to exclaim against the folly of the deed. Astonishment was painted in every face. Every tongue was silent. Writers give a particular, but incredible detail of the battle between Shere Afkun and the tiger. This much is certain, that, after a long and obstinate struggle, the astonishing warrior prevailed; and, though mangled with wounds himself, laid at last the savage dead at his feet. The thousands who were eye-witnesses of the action, were even almost afraid to vouch for the truth of the exploit, with their concurring testimony. The fame of Shere was increased; and the designs or the emperor failed. But the determined cruelty of the latter stopt not here: other means of death were contrived against the unfortunate Shere.'

In the year 1627, Jehangire was succeeded by Dawir Buxfi, the son of prince Chusero, who had been assassinated in the life-time of his father. The reign of the new emperor, however, proved of very short duration; for he was soon deposed and murdered by his brother Churram, otherwise Shaw Jehân, who, upon his elevation to the imperial dignity, dispatched all the males of the house of Timur. This act of barbarity in Shaw Jehân was afterwards punished by intestine divisions in his own family. For during an indisposition with which he was seized, an obstinate contest was maintained among his sons, respecting the succession to the crown. By duplicity and intrigue, the party of Aurungzêbe proved at last successful; and that ambitious prince mounted the imperial throne while his father as yet held the scepter. This revolution happened in the year 1658, and is thus related by our author.

Aurungzêbe, however, owed not altogether his success either to his own hypocrisy, or to the weakness of his brother. Naturally averse to pomp and magnificence, he affected all his life that humble deportment which brings the prince near to the people. Without being virtuous from principle, he was an enemy to vice from constitution; and he never did an act of injustice, till he aspired to the throne. In his private character he was an example of decency to others; an affectionate parent, a sincere friend, a just master. Destitute of that elegance of person, and that winning behaviour which had rendered his brothers the idols of the people: wherever they moved, he endeavoured to acquire a degree of popularity by the austerity of his manners. Like the rest of the family of Timur, he was bred up with very free notions upon the subject of religion; but various circumstances induced him afterwards to assume the appearance of a rigid devotee. His brothers, by encouraging men of all religions, had offended the followers of Mahommed. The posterity of those moguls, who under Baber conquered India, and soldiers of fortune from Tartary and Persia, occupied the greatest number of the places of profit and trust in the empire. These could not see, without envy, men of different persuasions from themselves, admitted into the confidence of princes who still professed the Mahommedan faith. Though silent at court, they murmured in secret; and lamented the declining state of a religion, under the auspices of which they had extended their government over India. Aurungzêbe, by his rigid adherence to the tenets inculcated in the Coran, gained the esteem of all those, who, if the expression may be used, were the chains which kept together the nations of Hindostan under the house of Timur. But the influence which Aurungzêbe derived from his devotion did not, for many years, suggest an ambition to aspire to the empire. He only hoped, that under the cloke of sanctity, he might pass in safety his life under any of his brothers, whom Fortune might place on the throne.

That specious appearance, which the actions of a man of religion must wear in the eyes of the world, facilitated his schemes. In his long march from the Decan, his troops observed a most exact discipline. No ravages were committed; no injustice done.

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When he sat down with his army in a field of corn, he either paid the estimated value to the owners, or gave a receipt for it as a part of the revenue due to the crown. "Though I am forced," said he, "into a war by the machinations of Dara, I cannot consider myself as in an enemy's country." When the people came to decide their differences before him, he remanded them to the officers of the empire. "Fortune," he was heard to say, "may change the prince, but the fundamental laws of the state must not be changed. Should I fail in my present enterprize," continued he to the petitioners, "my judgment would not avail you, nay, it would do you harm with the conquerors. But if I shall succeed in my undertakings, I promise to acquiesce in the determinations of the imperial judges." These moderate sentiments contributed to reconcile the minds of the people to his government; and even induced them to ascribe the most wicked of his actions to necessity.

When the news of his having mounted the throne arrived at Agra, the governor filled every corner of the city with public demonstrations of joy. The people were rather struck with surprise, than moved with gladness. They, however, observed that cautious silence which suits the subjects of despotism. The noise of the artillery on the walls of the citadel, saluted the old emperor's ears, and roused him from the melancholy into which he had been plunged by his misfortunes. "Go, Jehannâra," he said, for his daughter was the only person near him; "go, and learn the cause of this sudden mark of joy! But why should we enquire? The gladness of those who surround us, must add to our grief. Some new misfortune must have fallen on Dara; look not abroad, lest the first object to strike your eyes, should be the head of a brother whom you tenderly loved." Jehannâra, bursting into tears, arose; and, in the passage which led to the haram, was met by the chief eunuch, who was hastening to the emperor with the news.

The eyes of Shaw Jehân flashed with rage. He rose—he walked to and fro through the apartment, but he uttered not one word. His daughter sat at a distance in tears; he raised his eyes, and looked stedfastly for some time on the figure of a crown which hung suspended from the ceiling over his head. He called at length the chief eunuch; "Take," said he, "that bauble away; it mocks me with the memory of my former condition." The tear stood in his eye: "Yet stay thy hand," resumed the emperor; "this would be owning the right of Aurungzêbe." He beckoned to the eunuch to retire: he stood involved in thought. "The new emperor, Jehannâra," said Shaw Jehân, "has prematurely mounted his throne. He should have added the murder of a father to the other crimes which have raised him so high. But this perhaps is also art; he wants to deprive me, by misrepresentation, of what remains of my fame, before he deprives me of life."

Whilst Shaw Jehân was making these melancholy reflections on his own lost condition, a message was brought to him from Mahommed, the eldest son of Aurungzêbe, who had remained at Agra. He begged leave to have permission to wait upon his grandfather. The emperor, starting from his reverie at the name of Mahommed, replied to the messenger, "If he comes as an enemy, I have no power to prevent him; if as a friend, I have now no crown to bestow;" alluding to his offer to Mahommed, when that prince seized the citadel. The messenger told him, That Mahommed wished only to be admitted to communicate to the emperor the reasons which induced his father to mount the throne. "Fathers,"

thers," replied shaw Jehân, "have been dethroned by their sons; but to insult the misfortunes of a parent, was left for Aurungzêbe. What reason but his ambition has the rebel for assuming the empire? To listen to his excuses, would be to acknowledge the justice of his conduct, by shewing, by my weakness, that I could no longer wield the scepter which he has struck from my hand."—Mahommed retired.

Shaw Jehân survived the loss of his regal authority about eight years, during which period he lived in a state of imprisonment at Agra. The rigour of his situation was somewhat softened by the respectful attention which Aurungzêbe affected to pay him; but to the last of his days he seems still to have regretted the deprivation of the sovereign power.

The following passage contains so striking an instance of artifice, superstition, and credulity, that we shall extract it for the amusement of our readers.

'The security which Aurungzêbe acquired by the defeat of so many formidable rivals, was disturbed from a quarter which added ridicule to danger. In the territory of the prince of Marwâr, near the city of Nagur, there lived an old woman, who was arrived at the eightieth year of her age. She possessed a considerable hereditary estate, and had accumulated, by penury, a great sum of money. Being seized with a fit of enthusiasm, she became all of a sudden prodigal of her wealth. Fakiers and sturdy beggars, under a pretence of religion, to the number of five thousand, gathered round her castle, and received her bounty. These vagabonds, not satisfied with what the old woman bestowed in charity, armed themselves, and, making predatory excursions into the country, returned with spoil to the house of their patroness, where they mixed intemperance and riot with devotion. The people, oppressed by these sanctified robbers, rose upon them, but they were defeated with great slaughter.

'Repeated disasters of the same kind were at last attributed to the power of enchantment. This ridiculous opinion gaining ground, fear became predominant in the opinions of the fakiers. The banditti, acquiring confidence from their success, burnt and destroyed the country for many leagues; and surrounded the castle of the pretended enchantress with a desert. The raja marched against them with his native troops, but was defeated; the collectors of the imperial revenue attacked them, but they were forced to give way. A report prevailed, and was eagerly believed by the multitude, that on a certain day of the moon, the old lady used to cook in the skull of an enemy, a mess composed of owls, bats, snakes, lizards, human flesh, and other horrid ingredients, which she distributed to her followers. This abominable meal, it was believed by the rabble, had the surprising effect of not only rendering them void of all fear themselves, and of inspiring their enemies with terror, but even of making them invisible in the hour of battle, when they dealt their deadly blows around.

'Their numbers being now increased to twenty thousand, this motley army, with an old woman at their head, directed their march towards the capital. Bistamia, for that was her name, was a commander full of cruelty. She covered her route with murder and devastation, and hid her rear in the smoke of burning villages
and

and towns. Having advanced to Narnoul, about five days journey from Agra, the collector of the revenue in that place opposed her with a force, and was totally defeated. The affair was now become serious, and commanded the attention of the emperor. He found that the minds of the soldiers were tainted with the prejudices of the people, and he thought it necessary to combat Bistamia with weapons like her own. Sujait was ordered against the rebels. The emperor, in the presence of the army, delivered to that general, billets written with his own hand, which were said to contain magical incantations. His reputation for sanctity was at least equal to that of Bistamia; and he ordered a billet to be carried on the point of a spear before each squadron, which the soldiers were made to believe would counteract the enchantments of the enemy. The credulity which induced them to dread the witchcraft of the old woman, gave them confidence in the pretended charm of Aurungzêbe.

The history of Aurungzêbe is continued to the year 1669, after which Mr. Dow favours us with sensible observations on the genius and qualities of that prince. Had Aurungzêbe attained the imperial dignity in the regular course of succession, and not sacrificed to ambition the most inviolable obligations of filial duty, his virtues would have ranked him among the most illustrious of princes; and, notwithstanding his usurpation, it must still be acknowledged, that his eminent qualities did honour to the throne of Hindostan.

We cannot hesitate in admitting that the volume of the history now before us excels the two preceding with respect to elegance of style; and in regard to the transactions which are related, we think it is also more interesting.

In the Dissertation prefixed, concerning the origin and nature of despotism in Hindostan, the author derives the form of government in that country from the influence of the climate, the religion and manners of the people. We meet in this treatise with many ingenious observations, which are delivered in a style more florid than that of the History. With respect to the Enquiry into the State of Bengal, which is also prefixed, as we gave an account, in our last Review, of two large works on that subject, it seems unnecessary to carry our investigation any farther. The outlines of the plan proposed by Mr. Dow, for restoring Bengal to its former prosperity, are, to establish landed property, to introduce paper currency, suppress monopolies, and grant a free toleration of all religions. The author also delivers his sentiments concerning the regulation of the executive and judicial power of that country.

VII. *Observations on the Structure and Draught of Wheel-Carriages.*

By J. Jacob. 4to. 6s. Dilly.

MR. J. Jacob, whose principal profession, as we are given to understand by the Preface to this work, is that of constructing wheel-carriages, informs us, he attended the experiments made last year by order of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, in the Strand; but as the course of those experiments were interrupted by the approach of the summer vacation, our author was reduced to the necessity of prosecuting his enquiries, by making some experiments himself. A number of very perplexing ones, and the result of others as perfectly simple, Mr. Jacob says, 'gave rise to the following Observations,' which 'were published rather with an intent to make them generally known, in order that they may be confirmed or refuted by the experience of others, than to gratify any vanity I may be supposed to entertain in appearing as an author.'

Encouraged by so fair an invitation to examine the author's principles laid down for the improvement of wheel-carriages, we shall, without the least reserve, pursue our enquiries thro' the several parts of this performance, and freely point out such articles, if such there are, as may appear to us, either doubtful or ambiguous.

Our author, after having premised some useful considerations with regard to local motion in general, proceeds to a description of the methods by which he communicated that motion to various kinds of wheel-carriages, and this was chiefly effected by means of weights appended to running lines passing over fixed pulleys. Thus if 'A (Plate I. fig. 3. in the author's work) is a weight suspended by the running line *ii* over the pully P, and attached by the same line to another weight or heavy body B, resting on an horizontal plane CD. While A is supported, or B is forcibly prevented from sliding or rolling along the plane CD; both A and B remain at rest: but the support of A being taken away, and B left at liberty to move, the force of gravity generates motion in A, and of necessity in B; to which A is inseparably attached by the running line. Now it is well known that the motion of bodies descending by their own weight is constantly accelerated: and, though it be true that in this case the velocity with which the motion is generated in A is less than it would have been, if A were not attached to B, yet it will continue to increase in velocity as it descends: so that, though A will not in the same time acquire the same velocity as if, being detached from B, it had begun to descend faster, it will in time arrive at any degree

grée of velocity, how great soever, provided it meets with no resistance, and A continues to descend. Hence it is plain, that the smallest weight whatever, suspended at A, might in time generate a motion of prodigious velocity in B, even tho' B were prodigiously heavy, and A extremely light. And hence it is plain, that the velocity given to B by the descent of A, will always be in proportion to the length or time of that descent.'

By this method of communicating motion, and the help of proper models, Mr. Jacob shews how the motion once given to carriages is to be continued; and likewise well explains the use of wheels in obviating friction, which he clearly proves is not diminished, but only more easily overcome by the application of the wheels to carriages. In the course of this enquiry, our author takes notice of a mistake concerning the wheels of carriages, which has been continued through every edition of Chambers's Cyclopædia; and the same error he says, has likewise appeared in the works of others writers, where it is affirmed, 'that the wheels of carriages, though they appear to have a double motion, the one circular, about their axis, the other rectilinear, by which they advance along the road, yet in effect they have but one, it being impossible the same thing should move, or be agitated two different ways at the same time.' This one motion, it is said, is a spiral one, as is easily seen by fixing a piece of chalk on the face of a wheel, so that it may draw a line on a wall, as the wheel moves.—The line, it is said, which it here traces, is a just spiral, and still the more curve as the chalk is fixed nearer the axis.

'By what means this conceit about the same thing moving two ways at once, came to find its way into mechanics, I know not, but the fact related is as false as the proposition is equivocal and absurd. It is not true, or pretended to be so, that the same thing moves two ways in the rectilinear and circular motions of wheels. The local motion, or motion of the whole wheel, is rectilinear only, that of the parts of the wheel circular. Nor can this latter motion with any propriety be called that of the wheel, unless the same thing could also move quick and slow at the same time, which the different parts of the wheel, in revolving round its axis, evidently do.

'It is also somewhat surprising, that the pretended fact should continue to be inserted in the repeated editions of that popular work; since nothing is more easy than for any one, who will take the trouble to make the experiment, to prove its falsehood. Place the chalk on the face of the wheel, as directed, and you will find, that so far from its describing a just spiral, and that still the more curve as the chalk is fixed near the axis,
the

the chalk, if placed on the periphery of the wheel, will describe a cycloid, and the nearer it is placed to the axis, the nearer will the line it describes approach to the strait line which is described by the axis itself.

We readily subscribe to the truth of this assertion, that when the chalk is fixed in the periphery, the curve described will be a common cycloid; and when placed nearer the center, the curve described, which is known to be the curtate cycloid, will approach nearer to a right line than before: but with regard to the absurdity abovementioned, as it cannot be expected we are sufficiently at leisure to examine every page of so large a work as the Cyclopædia, in order to find out a mistake, which, possibly, may not be there, Mr. Jacob should have obverted to the proper signature under which it might be found; however, if such a mistake is any where to be met with, we should suppose it included in the description of the *Rota Aristotelica*, which is a celebrated problem in mechanics, and in the Cyclopædia thus described. 'While a circle makes a revolution on its center, advancing at that same time in a right line along a plane, it describes on the plane a right line equal to its circumference. Now, if this circle which we may call the deferent, carry with it another smaller circle concentric with it, and which has no motion but what it receives from the deferent, which is the case of the nave of a coach wheel carried along by the wheel; yet this little circle or nave will describe a line in the time of its revolution, not only greater than its own circumference, but equal to that of the wheel: for that its center advances in a right line, as fast as that of the wheel does, as being in reality the same therewith. The matter of fact is certain, but how it should be so, seems mysterious. It is obvious, that the wheel, advancing during the revolution, must describe a right line equal to its circumference, but how would the nave, which revolves like the wheel, describe a right line so much greater than its circumference. Several eminent philosophers, as Aristotle, Galileo, Tacquet, &c. endeavoured to explain this mystery, but their attempts proving in vain, Mr. Dortous de Meyran, a French gentleman, had the good fortune to hit on a solution which he sent to the Royal Academy of Sciences, where being examined by Mess. de Louville and Saulmon, appointed for that purpose, they made their report that it was satisfactory.—The solution is to this effect: the wheel of a coach is only acted on or drawn in a right line; its circular motion or rotation arises purely from the resistance of the ground whereon it is applied. Now, this resistance is equal to the force wherewith the wheel is drawn in the right line, insomuch, that it defects that direction,

tion, of consequence the causes of these two motions, the one right, the other circular, are equal, and therefore, their effects, i. e. their motions, are equal. And hence the wheel describes a right line on the ground equal to the circumference.

For the nave of the wheel, the case is otherwise.—It is drawn in a right line by the same force as the wheel, but it only turns round, because the wheel turns, and can only turn with it, and at the same time therewith. Hence it follows, that its circular velocity is less than that of the wheel in the ratio of the two circumferences, and, therefore, its circular motion is less than its rectilinear one.

Since then it necessarily describes a right line equal to that of the wheel, it can only do it by sliding, or what they call the motion of rotation.—That is, a part of the circular nave cannot be applied to a part of a right line greater than itself, but by sliding along that part, and that more or less, as the part of the nave is less than that of the circle. As we do not find any thing of the mistake in this solution, which Mr. Jacob alludes to, we confess ourselves at a loss whereabouts in the *Cyclopædia* to look for it.

Our author, in treating of the importance of friction respecting the draught of wheel carriages, (p. 51.) takes notice, 'that if there were no friction, the smallest power imaginable might draw the greatest load along an horizontal plane: but with what velocity would it draw it? Just with as great a velocity as the globe of the earth recedes from the percussive weight of a fly. It is somewhat surprising, that so many ingenious experimentalists have bestowed their time and attention on this subject, without taking into consideration the velocity with which the several carriages were moved by the different powers applied to put them in motion.' Does not this seem to contradict an observation which we have already transcribed from p. 6, of this work, viz. that the smallest weight whatever suspended at A, might in time generate a motion of prodigious velocity in B, even though B were prodigiously heavy, and A extremely light?

At p. 53, Mr. Jacob tells his readers that, 'it were easy to make one carriage of such a weight, that it should be just put in motion by two horses; and another of twice its weight that should be just as easily put in motion by one,' (we suppose of equal strength with either of the former); if this be true, and the progression indefinite, it will follow, by parity of reasoning, that the weight of a mountain may be put in motion by the force of a mouse. However this may be, 'we must not hence infer, that in consequence of the mere difference in the construction of the carriage, one horse will be able to draw twice

as much weight as two can do, to the same distance in the same time.' We readily believe, that no man of common sense would make such an inference, unless the single horse were stronger than the other two together; and every mechanic knows, that it is an invariable law of nature, that what is got in time is lost in force, and vice versa; therefore we think the precaution needless.

In the 8th section, p. 61, Mr. Jacob exemplifies the use of wheels in facilitating the draught of carriages, where he gives the preference to high wheels both in overcoming friction, and surmounting obstacles; 'they have, indeed, the advantage, he says, over low ones, though not quite to that degree for which some of the advocates for the former so warmly contend. Their degree of utility is nevertheless very easily to be ascertained in general, both by theory and experiment.'

'As to the former, it will admit of a geometrical illustration. Let *AB* (fig. 1. plate 10.) represent a wheel of two feet diameter, drawn along the plane *CD*, by a line parallel to the said plane, and fixed to the center of the wheel at *W*. Let *O* stand for the obstacle over which it is to be drawn, rising six inches from the surface of the plane. As it is on this point *O*, that the opposite point in contact of the periphery of the wheel must rest and turn, while the wheel is raised over the obstacle, the lines *OW*, and *OB*, may be considered as the arms of a capstan, which being of equal length, the power acting at *W* must be equal to the weight pressing at *B*: that is, supposing the power acting at right angles to *WO*. In this case, indeed, it must be much greater; the dotted line *WP* making a considerable angle with the perpendicular expressed by the dotted line *WZ*. Disregarding this obliquity, the power in this instance must be equal to the weight. Let *AB* (fig. 2.) represent the segment of a wheel of eight feet diameter, drawn along the plane *CD*, by a line also parallel to the plane. Let *O* represent a like obstacle, rising six inches above the same on which the opposite point on the edge of the wheel turns, while it is raised over it. Consider now the lines *OW*, and *OB*, to be the arms of a capstan, as before, and we see that the power at *W* acts at twice the distance from the fulcrum, or center of the capstan that the weight acts at *B*. Hence it is plain, that a wheel of eight feet diameter has just twice the advantage in overcoming obstacles of a wheel of two feet. It has, indeed, more, because the line *WZ* in this case, makes a less angle with the perpendicular line *WP* in the former case.'

Mr. Jacob, we hope, will pardon us when we say this geometrical illustration is, at least in our opinion, very far from being

being either clear or satisfactory; the lines O W, O B can by no means be equal, unless they are two sides of an equilateral triangle, which may not be the case: and again, the lines O W, O B in the larger wheels 'are to be considered as the arms of a capstan, as before,' that is, we suppose, equal; but these lines differ much more than in the former case, and therefore cannot be taken as equal; and, indeed, the very conclusion, viz. a wheel of eight feet diameter has just twice the advantage and *more*, than a wheel of two feet in diameter, for the same purpose of overcoming equal obstacles, could not possibly be the result of any kind of investigation derived from mathematic principles. If we admit that the facility of surmounting an obstacle is reciprocally as the sine of the angle formed by the horizontal plane, and the chord line in the wheel, drawn from the vertex of the obstacle, to the point where the wheel touches the said plane, that is by the sine of the angle at B, then putting r for the radius of the less wheel, b for the height of the obstacle, we have by the nature of the circle $\overline{OB}^2 = 2rb$, and by plane trigonometry $\sqrt{2rb} : b :: 1 :$
 $\frac{b}{\sqrt{2rb}}$, the sine of the angle at B to the radius 1. In the same manner, the sine of the angle at B in the greater wheel, whose radius is denoted by R , will be $\frac{b}{\sqrt{2Rb}}$, (the obstacle to each wheel being of the same height) and therefore the advantage of the wheels to overcome equal obstacles as $\frac{b}{\sqrt{2r}}$ to $\frac{b}{\sqrt{2R}}$, or \sqrt{R} to \sqrt{r} ; which perfectly agrees with the result of Mr. Jacob's experiment, viz. 'that if it requires a certain power to draw a carriage of a certain weight over a certain obstacle, with wheels of any determinate diameter, it will require wheels of four times that diameter to draw the same carriage over the same obstacle with half that power.' And hence our author very justly remarks, that, 'as the weight of wheels therefore increases, and their strength diminishes, in a very great proportion, viz. as their diameters, it is in this case as in that of friction, the wheels of a carriage may be made so large, and consequently so heavy, that it would be less easily and speedily drawn, than if its wheels were smaller; notwithstanding high wheels have in general the advantage, both with respect to friction, and also with regard to the more readily surmounting of obstacles.'

In treating of two-wheeled carriages of burthen, Mr. Jacob rejects the use of high-wheels which has of late gained ground in and about London, it being, he says, an absurdity to in-crease

crease the wheels of such carriages to an enormous height, because, at the same time, their weight will be proportionably increased, and this can by no means be advantageous to the horses. 'For though somewhat be gained in point of friction, and in overcoming obstacles by the high wheels, this advantage is not equal to what is lost by the weight, or vis inertiae of the wheels, especially if we take into consideration, that the horses are much less relieved by the absence of the load than in drawing the common cart. So that, granting they drew a full high-wheeled cart something easier than a full common one, they drew the empty one with much greater difficulty than they do an empty common one; and this particularly up hill, on account of the greater relative gravity of the carriage.'

The present method of hanging coaches, and other slung vehicles, our author apprehends to be very defective, for by this 'mode of affixing the body to the carriage, the center of gravity of the suspended body is so high above the center of its motion, that it is liable to be continually agitated by the jolting of the carriage, and its danger of overturning increased: whereas, if instead of practising this method, the body were suspended as near as possible to its center of gravity, the agitation of the carriage, as well as its danger of overturning, would be in a great measure avoided.'

If what Mr. Jacob here advances with regard to an alteration in the present mode of affixing the body to the carriage be true, it is, however, very difficult to understand; for we are not told by the author what the center of motion is, and as to the direction for *suspending the body as near as possible to its center of gravity*, it seems to be much the same as giving orders to the coachman upon the box to sit as near as possible to himself.

VIII. *Select Discourses, I. Of the Correspondence of the Hebrew Months with the Julian, from the Latin of J. David Michaelis, Royal Professor of Goettingen. II. Of the Sabbatical Year, from the same. III. Of the Years of Jubilee, from an anonymous Writer, in Mr. Maffion's "Histoire Critique de la Republique des Lettres," Vol. V. Art. II. p. 60, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bowyer.*

IN the first of these dissertations the learned author points out and rectifies a mistake, which he has discovered in the common method of computing the Hebrew months. He observes, that those things could not be performed in March, April, May, and September, which Moses assigned to the first, second, third, and seventh month; that a handful of ripe corn, which was to be offered as the first-fruits of the harvest, could not

not be offered in the month of March; that the corn could not be gathered in before the feast of Pentecost, when thanks were to be returned for finishing the harvest; and that the feast of tabernacles, which was to be kept when all the fruits were gathered in, was not adapted to September, as the vintage could not be finished in Galilee, even so soon as the beginning of October. The intercalation of the month of Veadar, after Adar, does not, he thinks, remove the doubt. He therefore supposes, that the Syriac calendar, in which Nisan corresponds with April, is agreeable to the ancient Mosaical mode of computation; and that the Hebrew months are to be ranged in this order.

‘ The first, called by Moses אֲבִיב *Abib* *, by others Nisan, begins with the new moon in April, and corresponds with our April, as much as possible for a lunar month; but yet so as part of it may fall sometimes in the following May.

‘ The second, זִיז *Ziv* †, according to the Hebrew, was called by the Chaldees Jiar, beginning on the first new moon in May, answers to our May as much as a lunar month can.

‘ The third, סִיוָן *Sivan* ‡, was computed from the first new moon in June, and answers to our June in great measure, except that from the variations of the lunar month, part of it may fall in July.—This month is called by the Syrians Chezirun.

‘ The fourth, whose name does not occur in our Hebrew Bible, but it is called by the Chaldees Thammuz, begins from the first new moon in July, and answers to our July, only that, from the lunar inequalities, the end of it may fall in August.—As the Greeks report, that Adonis was torn by a wild boar, so the Syrians report the same of Thammuz; and it was but fit that the month in which the wild boars are fiercest, and in which Thammuz seems to have died, should be sacred to his name, and to the mourning expressed for him.

‘ The fifth, not to be found in the Hebrew Bible, but called אָב *Ob*, by the Chaldees, begins from the first new moon in August, and answers to our August nearly; but if the new moon be somewhat late, it will take in part of October.

‘ The sixth, אֱלּוּל *Elul* §, begins from the first new moon in September, and answers to that month; but if the new moon be somewhat late, it will take in part of October.

‘ The seventh, אֵתָנִים *Ethanim*, on which was celebrated the feast of tabernacles, is called in the Hebrew Bible, *the month of continued rivers* ||, by the Chaldees, תִּשְׂרִי *Tisri*, begins

* Exod. xiii. 4.
§ Nehem. vi. 15.

† 1 Kings, vi. 1. 37.

‡ Esther, viii. 9.

|| 1 Kings viii. 2. *al. fortium.*

from the new moon in October, answers to it, unless the change should happen late, and then it takes in part of November.—October alone of all the months is the most worthy of being called the *month of continued rivers*. For since at the time of harvest, which is in May and June in Palestine, there is no rain; in July, August, September, and the greatest part of October, but little; the consequence must be, that in October the brooks are dry, and the rivers and streams which remain, are perennial. When therefore the perennial streams alone flow in October, nature herself, if she should mark the months by words, would call it *the perennial month*. For in November, which immediately follows, some of the brooks, which before were dry, begin to flow again.

* The eighth, called **בּוּל** *Bul**, by the Hebrews, begins from the first new moon in November, takes in our November, and, according to the variety of our new moon, sometimes part of December.—This month the etymon seems to mark plain enough, if you derive it from **בָּלַל** *rigavit, madefecit*. For in November the rains in Palestine, which are called the former rain, begin; and in that month overflowings of rivers and floods are to be feared more than in other months.

* The ninth, **כִּסְלֵו** *Cisseu*†, commences from the first new moon of our December, includes our December, and part of January, if the new moon happens a little later than ordinary.—This month is called by the Syrians Conun.

* The tenth, **טֵבֵת** *Tebet*‡, is to be computed from the first new moon of our January, and when that is a little later, contains part of February.

* The eleventh, **שֵׁבַט** *Sebat*§, from the first new moon of our February, but when that is a little later, takes in part of March.

* The twelfth **אֲדָר** *Adar*||, commences from the first new moon of our March, and answers to it; or if the new moon is late, takes some days from April of the following year.

This hypothesis, which is different from that of all the Jewish and Christian commentators, seems to be countenanced by the laws of Moses, the Syriac names of the months, Josephus, and the etymology of the names.

We are, however, inclined to think, that a writer upon this subject should not have stopped here, but have considered upon astronomical principles, the irregularities with regard to the seasons, which might gradually arise from the difference between

* 1 Kings vi. 38. al. Marschevan.

† Zech. vii. 1. Nehem. i. 1.

‡ Esther ii. 16.

§ Zech. i. 7.

|| Esther iii. 7. 13.—

viii. 12.—ix. 1.

twelve lunar months, and the solar year, notwithstanding the Jewish intercalations, which in all probability were very inaccurate.

Before Moses appointed that month, in which the Israelites came out of Egypt, to be the first, the seventh month, it is well known, was the beginning of the Jewish year. At that time, therefore, the numbers of the Israelitic and Syrian months were the same; and as now with the Syrians, so before Moses with the Israelites, the first month of the year was October, the second November, the third December, the fourth January, the fifth February, the sixth March, the seventh April, the eighth May, the ninth June, the tenth July, the eleventh August, and the twelfth September. And of these months Moses must be supposed to speak, when in the history of the Deluge, he mentions the first month, the second, the seventh, and the tenth. The deluge began in November, not, as it is usually thought, in October; in April, not in March, the waters were so much decreased, that the ark rested on the mountain; in July, not in June, the tops of the mountains were seen; in October, not in September, the earth began to be dried; in November it was quite dry, and Noah went out of the ark.

In the second dissertation, the learned author endeavours to shew the wisdom and advantages of that paradoxical law of Moses, which required a cessation from tillage, throughout the whole land of Palestine, every seventh year. This law, at first view, may seem rather calculated to produce a famine, than to answer any useful purpose. An extraordinary fruitfulness was indeed promised every sixth year. Lev. xxv. 18—22; yet this, our author thinks, is not sufficient to solve the difficulty. Some writers, from the contrariety of this law to civil prudence, have inferred, that Moses was divinely inspired. But this, says Mr. Michaelis, is no other than to prove the divine legation of Moses, from the incredible folly of the Mosaic law. The observance of the sabbatical year, was, he thinks, a most powerful remedy against a famine. When the heads of families were obliged to lay up a quantity of corn for the seventh year, they always possessed an easier and more copious resource, than they could have ever found in regal granaries. He farther supposes, that wild beasts, flocks, and servants, might derive some peculiar advantages from the sabbatical year; and that upon the whole there was great utility and wisdom in the appointment.

The design of the third dissertation is to shew, that the year of jubilee was every forty-ninth year, or the seventh sabbatical year; and not the fiftieth, as some have supposed.

These pieces deserve the notice of the learned. We have not the originals now before us; and therefore all that we can say, concerning the accuracy of this translation, is, that we have a favourable opinion of it, as it is executed by a gentleman who has given the public an honourable proof of his industry, fidelity, and learning, in his *Conjectures on the New Testament*.

VIII. *The Elements of Navigation; containing the Theory and Practice. With the necessary Tables. To which is added, a Treatise of Marine Fortification. The Third Edition, with Additions, and Compendiums for finding the Latitude and Longitude at Sea. By J. Robertson, Librarian to the Royal Society. 8vo. 2 Vols. 18s. Nourse.*

THE author of the work before us, who (we are informed) has been a teacher of mathematics near forty years, and master of the two most eminent mathematical schools in this nation, (viz. the Royal Mathematical School, at Christ's Hospital, London, and the Royal Marine Academy at Portsmouth;) has had great experience in the business of teaching, and consequently, well qualified to communicate to learners the several mathematical branches on which the art of navigation is founded; and that he has succeeded, is pretty evident from the sale of the two former editions of these *Elements*. His views seem to be extended beyond those of most of the writers on this subject; who in the general, content themselves with shewing how to work what *they* think necessary, by *rote only*. Our author has put it in the power of his readers to see the *reason* of the several operations; and even to become such proficient in mathematical knowledge as to inspire them with a desire to proceed to other branches which his subject did not require; and to engage them to a love of mathematics, he procured from his friend the late learned mathematician Dr. James Wilson, a very curious and elaborate history of the rise and progress of the art of navigation; and beside the account of eminent men and their works contained in that history, there are in divers parts of the book, honourable mention made of other persons and inventions; which passages seem to have been entered chiefly to raise in the young readers a fondness for such studies: and, indeed, these *Elements of Navigation* may be reckoned as a mathematical cursus, whereby a learner is gradually prepared for the study of every branch of the sciences. It is divided into two volumes, containing ten books. In the first are the following parts, or books: 1. Arithmetic.—2. Geometry.—3. Plane Trigonometry.—4. Spherics.—5. Astronomy.—6. Geography.

And

And the second volume contains, 7. Plane Sailing.—8. Globular Sailing.—9. Day's Works.—10. Marine Fortification.

The first Book, which treats of Arithmetic, delivers the principles of that science epitomized in a masterly way; and so contrived, that in each fundamental rule the precepts and their examples appear at one opening of the book; a method which must be found useful to learners; and is, indeed, pursued throughout this extensive work, whenever it could be conveniently done; and which, doubtless, cost the author much time to have contrived his matter to admit of such disposition. The doctrines of whole numbers, decimal fractions, proportion, the square and cube roots, and so much of numeral series, as lead to the construction and use of logarithms, are all illustrated by a variety of well chosen examples.

Book II. contains so much of the Geometry of planes and solids, as appears, in general, to be wanting in the succeeding parts; and this has induced our author, among other things, to treat of the rectification of the circle; and some properties of the proportional, or logarithmic spiral. The learner is herein brought into the practical (use of his instruments in the) construction of many problems, without waiting for the demonstrations of such constructions; but is constantly informed on what theorems they depend; which are delivered in the subsequent parts, and concisely demonstrated.

Book III. is employed on the doctrine of Plane Trigonometry. Herein our author shews how the triangular tables of sines, tangents, &c. both natural and logarithmical, may be constructed; and having given the necessary propositions with their demonstration, for the solution of plain triangles, in a manner very clear and intelligible, subjoins twelve examples wrought at length, comprehending all the varieties that can occur: after which follow the construction and use of the Gunter's scale, where are shewn many particulars and niceties not taken notice of by other writers. This book is closed with neat investigations of several rules, useful in some particular cases.

Book IV. intitled Spherics, is divided into ten sections; in the first, second, and third, are contained the principles, theorems, and constructions, necessary in the stereographic projections wanted in the succeeding parts of the work; and includes a variety of cases with their demonstrations, and some notions not usually met with, which render this abstruse doctrine very clear and intelligible. The fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh sections contain the theorems, and investigations of rules necessary for the solution of spherical triangles; which, in the eighth and ninth sections, are exemplified in the numeral solutions wrought at length of all the cases. The tenth section

tion treats of goniometrical relations; in which the author has shewn the investigation of a table he gives, containing in terms of the sines, tangents, secants, and versed sines of arcs, and of their complements, forty different expressions, each equal to the radius, from which he investigates above forty curious propositions, useful in a multitude of cases relating to spherical triangles; the like is no where else to be met with.

Book V. treats of Astronomy in ten sections. The first and second treats of the solar system, and the notions thence derived, according to the observations of the most celebrated astronomers; the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth sections, treat of what is usually called the astronomy of the sphere; wherein, besides definitions, he gives near sixty problems, with their construction and numeral solution; above half of them relate to the finding the latitude at sea, and seem chiefly intended for the advantage of mariners. The seventh section, and the following, called Practical Astronomy, describes in a clear and concise manner, the most useful instruments in an observatory, with the investigation of the Vernier scale, assigning minutes or seconds of an arc. The eighth and ninth sections treat of various particulars relating to the sun's motion and the equation of time, in twelve propositions. The tenth section treats of the making and use of solar tables; the most important of these are added, and make twenty four pages.

Book VI. treats of Geography in nine sections. The first, second, and third contain definitions, together with the natural and political divisions of the terraqueous globe. Sect. 4. contains four propositions relating to latitude and longitude, with examples. The fifth treats of the use of the globes, in twenty-two problems, distinctly explained. The sixth and seventh sections treat of the winds and tides; with the opinions of the most eminent philosophers concerning these phenomena. The eighth treats of Chronology, with the usual rules in pilotage concerning the moon's age and time of high water; in nine problems; and the ninth section contains a geographical table, in twenty four pages, shewing the continent, country, and coast, together with the latitude and longitude of above 1400 places in different parts of the world; and also the time of high water in many of those places. Thus ends the first volume.

In the second volume, Book VII. treats of Plane Sailing in single and compound courses; of oblique sailing, turning to windward, and sailing in currents; and on the whole contains the solution of 114 questions, all pertinent to the subject, and which, at the same time they serve to exercise the parts of plane trigonometry, are so worded as to have the appearance of real business;

ness;

ness; these take up nine sections. The tenth section treats of the surveying of harbours, and other particulars relative to the estimating of distances; this book is closed with the largest and most complete traverse table published in any work.

Book VIII. is employed in the subject of Globular Sailing. The author seems to have chosen this title as conceiving there were only two kinds of sailing, viz. on a plane, or on a globe; and therefore includes in this book the various kinds of sailing, wherein longitude is concerned; such as parallel sailing, middle latitude, Mercator's, and great circle sailing; each of which he treats distinctly, having premised the true principles, and shewn the analogy between Wright's meridian line, and the logarithmic tangents. He gives thirteen cases in Mercator's sailing, and works examples to them by middle lat. Mercator and by logarithmic tangents: among which the case of one latitude distance and difference of longitude being given to find the course and the other latitude, is very prettily solved upon simple principles. Section 5. treats of compound courses, corrected by longitude. Section 6. Of the construction and use of the Mercator's chart. Sect. 7. Great circle sailing: and Section 8. Of the errors arising in the cases of sailing, upon the supposition that the earth is not a sphere. Herein that curious subject upon the figure of the earth is most elegantly delivered; and from the mensurations which have been made at the equator, the polar circle, and other places, it appears that the spheroidal figure of the earth will not sensibly affect any nautical conclusions obtained from considering it as a sphere. At the end of this book is a table of meridional parts to every degree and minute of the quadrant.

Our author's IXth Book, intitled Day's Work, is divided into eleven sections. In the first six sections is shewn the method of measuring the ship's rate of sailing, the nature of the magnet, and the mariner's compass; of working amplitudes and azimuths; of correcting the course by the variation and lee way; all these articles are made easy by concise rules and apt examples. In the seventh section is shewn the nature of Davis's and Hadley's quadrants, with the methods of observing altitudes, and of correcting them. Section 8. shews the method of comparing and correcting of time. Section 9. To find the latitude at sea, shewn by various methods in eight problems. Among which are included the modern methods by two altitudes and the time between; in which it appears, our author has made some new observations. Section 10. Shews how to find the longitude at sea; for which are given eleven methods; some of which are, indeed, speculative; but the reader is apprized of these: one method by the variation chart, *which is*

of great use in many voyages, is particularly pointed out, and recommended to be published every seventh year at the public expence: the method, by observing the distance between the moon and the sun, or star, is delivered with, or without the altitudes; and here our author has shewn how, from the apparent distance to find the true distance, by a simple and short logarithmic operation, so distinctly delivered, that no person who is acquainted with the use of logarithmic sines and tangents, can fail of becoming master of the method in a few hours. Section 11. treats of a ship's reckoning, wherein is explained the method of keeping a journal, exemplified in a supposed journal of twenty days, between London and Madeira. Then follows an Appendix, shewing the reason of some articles mentioned in the ninth book, which closes with tables of the logarithms of numbers, sines, and tangents.

Our author finishes his work, with a treatise of Marine Fortification, divided into two parts; the first of which contains six, and the second five sections. In this piece, the author's intention seems to have been, to shew how a single ship, or a fleet, may, upon the fear of an attack by a superior force, make such preparations in a harbour, as may either effectually secure them, or make it very hazardous to attempt to take or destroy them. As he found that mariners, unacquainted with fortification, would not be able to execute the methods he proposes for the defence of harbours, he therefore, in his first part, lays down a system of land fortification in a method very different from other writers: and then proceeds, in his second part, to what relates to ships and harbours. He concludes, with giving an account of ten remarkable naval transactions, which are exhibited as examples of the doctrine he has been endeavouring to inculcate.

Upon the whole, the treatise in question seems to answer its title: it contains a complete theory, with a full account of the practice of navigation, so as to be satisfactory to the most skilful, and intelligible to those of the meanest capacity. And, in justice to the author, it is necessary to observe, that we do not remember to have seen, in the progress of our Review, so much useful matter comprized within the compass of two volumes in octavo.

XI. *Considerations on the Exorbitant Price of Provisions.* By Francis Moore. 8vo. 2s. Kearsly.

THE high price of the necessaries of life in this country has, within these few years, burthened the press with innumerable productions, very few of which will be read by posterity with the least satisfaction: some ingenious writers have

have exercised their pens on it in a manner that has added greatly to their reputation, conducting their arguments with a due attention to first principles, which in every age and nation will be true and instructive.

The author of the work now before us is very far from ranking with such men; on the contrary, he has taken every measure which a person of [false] abilities can take, to persuade us that he has it adopted the wrong side of every question; that he has determined, when his facts were good, to reason wrong upon them; and, when his reasoning is just, his facts are sure to be false. His reading has been employed only to transplant the observations of preceding writers into his own page, without any acknowledgment, and in the selection he has been so unfortunate as to make choice of the chaff only: thus fraught with pretensions for the notice of the public, he stalks abroad, treats other writers as distant inferiors, and demands that praise as his right, which modesty sues for with humility.

This censure may at first be thought too severe: but it is not our custom to deal in general terms, without exhibiting fairly and candidly our proofs. The subject is of importance; and this is our motive for giving an attentive examination of a work which has just that quantum of merit which may enable the author to impose on weak minds. But previously to this we must remark, that our review of Mr. Moore is not our only employment; before we decide on him, we must distinguish between such parts of his work as appear to be his own, and that *exorbitant* quantity which is copied from others.

At page 5, Mr. Moore harrangues much against horses, states the wise remark, "that land which yields oats for horses, cannot, at the same time, produce wheat for men;" this reasoning here is taken verbatim from Dr. Mitchell's *Present State of Great Britain and North America*, p. 131.

P. 7. 'Four acres for each horse: Dr. Mitchell, p. 36. not Mr. Moore.

P. 16. 'Many writers have found great fault with the present mode of collecting live stock, and bringing them to market by jobbers; they have also found fault with salesmen and carcase butchers; but in opposition to these casuists I must declare, that I look upon the persons thus censured as very essentially serviceable to the public.*' And then he enters into

* For the sake of the comparison we shall here insert Mr. Young's argument, to shew how little occasion there was for Mr. Moore to enter into it—'Jobbers also have come in for their share of abuse; and yet numerous are the instances in which this species of traders are excellently useful. It is by means of jobbers that the different breeds

the reasoning to support this observation: it is a very just one; but prithee, reader, restore it to the just owner. See Young's *Farmers Letters*, vol. i. p. 188

P. 18. The general opinion is, that the inhabitants of London are amazingly increased; reasons and tables for the contrary opinion. See it much better shewn in Dr. Price's *Observations on Reversionary Payments*, p. 182.

breeds of cattle are spread over the kingdom; I live, for instance, in a country where the breed of horned cattle is very bad; I have a mind for better cows than I can get at our fairs or markets; how am I to get them? why either by means of jobbers or a monstrous private expence.

One country breeds, another fats: is every one in the latter to take a long journey for every parcel of beasts he wants?

If I chuse to fat Scotch cattle, am I to go to the Highlands of Scotland to buy them? And where is the difference between a jobber and a drover?

Most of the writers who argue so much against jobbers, are those who plead for small farms: now what a woeful predicament would small farmers be in if it was not for jobbers? A very great farmer might not, in all cases, regard a middling journey, because one trouble and expence would do for many cattle; but a small one could afford none, he must in every instance sit down contented with what he finds at home: if he lives in a fattening country, he cannot fat but must breed, on account of the expence of getting at cattle; and if he lives in a breeding country, he cannot breed for want of a person to carry his young cattle to a fair: since he can never carry them himself, and be upon a footing with his great neighbour, who is at no more expence to carry an hundred than one.

London wants 500 lean hogs: are the distillers, &c. to hunt about at country fairs for them, or to meet the jobbers at Barnet, by the intervention of another jobber (the salesman) and buy them all at once?

If there were no jobbers, in all these cases the buyers must lay a heavy tax on the consumers to repay themselves the enormous expence of doing the minutiae of business themselves.

But if jobbers raise the prices, how did it happen some twenty years ago, or perhaps ten or twelve, that prices should be low? there were jobbers then as well as now; but we find that prices fluctuate prodigiously without dependence on the hands through which cattle, &c. pass. If the common idea of this matter was just, prices could never be low, for the jobbers would always keep them high for their own profit; as there is ever more advantage in dealing with equal risk in a rich commodity than in a poor one. But it is said that jobbers raise the price of provisions upon the public: that they have a profit is most undoubted; but it is certainly out of the pocket of the seller, not of the buyer. I have twenty young cattle, three or four cows, forty or fifty swine, and half a score calves to sell; now will it not answer much better to me to sell them all with one trouble and expence to the jobber, than to hawk them about at fairs and markets at an uncertainty? Cast up accounts, and see if I had not better sell them to the jobber ten per cent. cheaper than to the public? out of whose pocket therefore does the jobber's profit come?

P. 21. Decrease of people throughout the country in general, villages amazingly depopulated—deduced from Mr. Greenville's State of the Nation: the very argument from the same authority in Dr. Mitchell's Present State of Great Britain, part i.

P. 23. Price of labour depending on price of provisions:—copied from writers who have copied one another ten deep. See Postlethwayte's Dictionary, Laws and Policy of England, p. 19. Essay on the Causes of the Decline of Foreign Trade, p. 6.

P. 36. 'I do most earnestly recommend a HEAVY TAX TO BELAID ON HORSES;' with much reasoning on it: earnestly recommended before for the same reasons by Dr. Mitchell. Pref. State of G. Brit. p. 82, &c.

P. 37. 'The tax on horses will restrain inconsiderate persons from riding who ought to walk, &c.' The turn, manner of thought in the whole of this passage, with the repetitions in other parts of the pamphlet, will all be found in Political Speculations on the Dearthness of Provisions, p. 23, 24.

P. 45. Proportion between labour and value in the spring of a watch, with the reasoning. Verbatim from Postlethwayte's Dictionary, vol. ii, Art, LABOUR.

P. 49. 'Poland, and other corn selling countries, impotent and poor.' A miserable argument, but miserable as it is, word for word from Considerations on the Policy, &c. of this Kingdom, p. 92, 93.

P. 50. 'By means of the bounty, foreigners eat our bread twenty-five per cent. cheaper than ourselves.' It would take too much room to name half the writers who have said this. But see the Causes of the Dearthness of Provisions assigned, p. 29. Essay on the Causes of the Decline of Foreign Trade, p. 30. Mitchell's Present State, p. 62. Considerations on the Policy. Commerce, &c. of this Kingdom; in which all Mr. Moore's arguments, with others equally fallacious, are to be found.

P. 62. 'In small farms the housewife with great care looks after her poultry, pigs, dairy,' &c. Copied from the Occasion of the Dearthness of Provisions, by a Manufacturer, p. 18. &c.

P. 71, 72, &c. 'Scarcity of money greater than for centuries.' 'Speculatists suppose the nation rich, they are fatally mistaken;' this, with much declamation on the ruin of Old England, all transcribed from the Present State of the Nation, p. 67; and Considerations on Policy, &c. p. 277, 278, &c.

P. 72, 73, 74. 'The reasoning and observations on the national poverty—Portugal gold—coinage—want of gold and silver—luxury, &c.' whether true or false is little to the present purpose. It belongs to Jonas Hanway, esq. not Mr. Francis Moore; see Letters on the Importance of the Rising Generation,

ration, vol. ii. p. 169 to 173, &c. Also *Considerations on Policy*, p. 273, 275.

79. 'Emigration of our manufacturers and industrious poor to foreign countries.' See *State of the Nation*, p. 34, 35.

P. 93. 'Comparison between horses and oxen in point of food.' From *Farmer's Letters*, vol. i. p. 165; *Farmer's Tour*, vol. iv. p. 273.

Lastly comes Mr. Moore's *plan for removing our distresses*, which is as superficial as the rest of his pamphlet; it consists of six lines of advice, which is certainly not at all stale—use oxen—tax horses—encourage fisheries—prohibit the exportation of corn! How original this is, every file of news papers in the three kingdoms can testify.

From this first part of our review have we not reason for our assertion that Mr. Moore has copied from other writers most *exorbitantly*? We have been diffuse on this head, because the price of provisions is so popular a topic that we may suppose more writers of the same stamp will start up, and give us volumes of arguments with an air of novelty that have in fact been worn threadbare; this reference therefore will be of use to our readers in warning them against every flimsy production that gives the hundredth repetition. All these passages in Mr. Moore's *Considerations*, may be supposed to fill a large part of his work: we shall divide our review of the remainder into,

1. False facts.—2. Facts true, but conclusions false.—3. False reasoning.—4. Contradictions.—Which divisions, with his numerous plagiarisms, may fairly be said to comprehend the whole work.

1. False Facts.

P. 5. 'Nearly half the produce of this kingdom consumed by horses.' An evident mistake, for at that rate from fifteen to twenty millions of acres are employed in raising food for them; and, as Mr. Moore says, they eat, on an average, four acres, the number must be from three and a half to five millions, which is preposterous. For facts which contradict this wild assertion see Mr. Young's *Eastern Tour*, vol. iv. p. 456 to 459.

P. 25. High price of provisions owing to plenty of money, a false proposition says Mr. Moore. If ever a fact was proved clearly it was this, by writers very different from Mr. Moore, we mean Montesquieu, Hume, and Soame Jennens, esq. in his *Thoughts on the Causes and Consequences of the high Price of Provisions*. Mr. Moore's reasoning is too weak to deserve an answer. Why, says he, should prices be low in autumn, and high in spring, when the plenty of money is the same? We reply, that

that such variations happened in Henry VII's reign, owing to the quantity in the markets varying. The quantity of money in one period of twenty years, makes the average price of beef four pence, in another three half-pence; but does it follow, that in each year there must be no variations owing to quite different causes?

P. 39. 'The average fleece of wool weighs three pound and an half.' This is not true. The average of Mr. Young's Northern Tour is five pound, and of his Eastern five pound and a half.

P. 71. 'I can safely affirm the real scarcity of money at this moment greater in effects than for centuries.' Mr. Moore gives no proof; we take the liberty to affirm the direct contrary; and could produce much better reason than any Mr. Moore has given in favour of his affirmation.

P. 80. 'Our trade soon to be contracted—duties to be diminished—and interest of national debt not to be paid.' False prophecies all! The amount of customs and excises being higher than ever, is a conclusive proof of such assertions. Have patience till the decline comes before you predict rain.

P. 83. 'We have lost almost the whole of our trade for woollens to Turkey, Spain, Portugal, and Germany.' Produce your proof, Mr. Moore. We deny it. But granting your fact, what useful point does it prove, if we have increased other exports proportionably. What was our hard ware export forty years ago?

P. 86. 'Labour in France full one third lower than with us.'—A fallacy. Four pence in France, and one shilling in England is not the enquiry, were that disproportion true, which it is not; but will seven shillings in France work more cloth than twenty-one shillings in England, quality the same? We answer, No.

P. 90. 'We have lost our trade, our money, and our credit; and without an immediate alteration in the system of public policy, we are also in a speedy way of losing our own country.' This is very sad, truly! but all these are the dreams of a dis-tempered imagination, fallacies too flagrant to examine: a balance of trade of six millions sterling, the wealth of the whole kingdom, the readiness of individuals to lend to government, and the very happy situation of France, all prove how good a politician Mr. Moore is.

2. Facts true, but conclusions false.

P. 4. 'I assert that it is the scarcity of provisions which enhances their value, and till a plenty is produced, a reduction of the rates will be utterly impracticable.' Perfectly true, and

I very

very justly observed! But why should Mr. Moore after it, give us a whole pamphlet of other reasons, with plans for a remedy? What after this have his conclusions about horses—Portugal gold—luxury—credit—wheels—and ploughs, to do? What but to contradict his own principles?

P. 15. 'It is, generally speaking, impossible to create an artificial scarcity, except for a very short time.' Nothing more true; but why from such a fact draw such false conclusions as declamations against large farms and inclosures? Why rail at Lynn gentlemen for the arrangement of their estates: if plenty is not to be impeded by such practices, of what use the argument?

P. 64. 'The parish of Newton Stacy in Hampshire, inclosed—formerly six farms, now only four; now only 200 sheep, before the inclosure 340.' This fact may be true, but what has it to do with Mr. Moore's argument? Why tell us of the loss of 340 sheep, and of horses being now kept in the parish: he is not pleased to tell us how many horses were kept before—how many oxen, cows, and hogs were kept then and now—nor yet the corn grown in the two periods.—Can any thing be so futile as giving such partial facts? Yet from such is deduced the melancholy idea of *wickedly* starving people to feed horses!

3. False reasoning.

P. 35. 'The fleece by our ancestors was revered, and considered as the staple commodity of this kingdom. Can a sufficient reason be given why it should now be less in our estimation? Can the ridiculous exportation of horses stand in competition with the exportation of our woollen manufactures?'—Nothing can be more fallacious than this reasoning: who has compared these two branches of export? But a sufficient reason can be given for esteeming wool less than formerly: it was heretofore the staple of England, because foreigners had not made it their staple also: our woollen goods have not been exported to certain countries equally to former exports, because they make for themselves: does not common sense then dictate, that the superior attention should be given to those objects that will thrive under it; to *drive the nail that will go*, which Mr. Moore would persuade us is not wool. But this is granting him facts of his own creating, for where are his proofs, 'that the export of woollen goods is less than formerly?'

P. 67. 'Those who think the distresses of the poor are not shocking to humanity, will do well to stop their career upon the road and ask the poor how they live?'—This to be sure is a very eligible way of coming at the truth; and by the by, it seems to be the grand foundation of Mr. Moore's knowledge;

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he meets a labourer, probably working in the turnpike, and questions him about his pay, and ability to maintain himself: can any person doubt the answer? But what trifling is it with the public to *instruct* the world by reasoning on such foundations? Does Mr. Moore suppose the man will say, *I thank God I earn plenty of money—and though things are dear, yet, by industry, I live well.*" A sorrowful tale is a prelude to the gentleman's throwing him half a crown, in order to mend the bad times.

4. Contradictions.

P. 23. 'It is well known that by our improvements in agriculture the fruits of the earth are become in general more abundant than ever.' Yet at p. 72, he says, 'Our stocks of corn, sheep, and cattle, are less now than ever they were, and the prices they bear are now higher than they ever were. Are these proofs of our riches?' Such evident contradictions shew how superficially this writer has considered his subject.

In Mr. Moore's explanation of *staples*, he is so entirely confused, nothing is to be made of that part of his book: that he contradicts himself is, however, manifest. He says, p. 42, and 43, 'the surface of the earth produces us two staples, wool and leather; iron, tin, lead, and copper, are staples; glass, china, and earthen-ware, are staples; fish is also a staple; but corn and horses are no staples.'

'Why is leather a staple? Because the oxen work; cows give milk; and both yield beef; and their skins are wrought into fabrics. Why is fish a staple? Because our fisheries not only employ our people; but the fish which we catch are excellent food.' These are his own definitions, and curious ones they are! Why are not horses and corn to be admitted upon the plain evidence of his own explanation. Do not horses *work*, and is not wheat excellent food? There is not, nor can be a circumstance produced relative to fish as an article of food, and employment, that is not stronger with wheat. Why is glass a staple? 'Because, says Mr. Moore, it is made from flints and clay, of which we have a stock inexhaustible.' But is not wheat made from clay, of which we have an equal stock?—But Mr. Moore evidently knows not what a staple is; for who of understanding ever omitted making a distinction between *staples* and *manufactures*: Are they the same? Staples are *products unwrought*: wool is a staple, but woollen goods are not; and wheat is a staple, and that of this kingdom equally with wool or tin.

P. 62. Small farms excellent; but at p. 82, he says, 'the cheaper the farmer tills his ground, the cheaper he can sell his produce.'—A palpable contradiction! For who can shew that small farmers till their farms so cheap as great ones?

So much for Mr. Moore's pamphlet; our opinion of which we have sufficiently supported by fair quotations: but we shall not dismiss the author without observing, that the man who for the sake of private interest, can publish a work, the immediate tendency of which is to increase the clamours and discontents of the people, by assuring them the high prices are in the power of government to lower, deserves of every well-disposed person, what we do not chuse to express. Mr. Moore has written this weak essay as a puff for his ploughs. At p. 8. he says, that by means of his plough, 'the farmer may considerably reduce the number of his horses, which will necessarily lower the price of provisions.' This little passage is the corner-stone of this interested building: would but the legislature subscribe for a thousand or two of ploughs, all would go well, and the poor fatten.

But what is this wonderful plough, which, through patriotism, has been sold at the modest price of twelve guineas? Does one horse work it? As to two-horse ploughs, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, and other counties, are full of them: every farmer, every wheelwright in them, have as much merit as Mr. Moore; and if utility of implement is considered, much more. Was Mr. Moore's gimcrack of a plough to be general, the farmer's expence would increase, while his ploughing declined: this would be to heighten the price of provisions!

Such an interested conduct cannot be too much condemned, when the aim is of so fatal a tendency as to blow up popular discontents at an evil which cannot be remedied: no publications are so pernicious as such as attempt to persuade the people they might have a remedy if government would give it; and which, under the sanction of an hypocritical charity, rail at all who are honest enough plainly to tell them the evil is irremediable. Mr. Moore would willingly persuade us he is a great patriot, and a composition of charity itself; but his patriotism is very well exhibited in his numerous patents, and in the modesty of his prices: his charity is signally employed in urging the people not to make amends for scarcity by industry; but to fly to that which is to conduct them to Tyburn: and we may also add, that these acquisitions for forming a good citizen, are not a little set off by that *fairness* which appears in his *quotations*; by that *truth* which is the foundation of his *facts*; by that *perspicuity* which is remarkable in his *reasonings*; and that uncommon *ingenuity* which is so conspicuous in his *self-contradictions*.

X. *Reason triumphant over Fancy; exemplified in the singular Adventures of Don Sylvio de Rosalva. Translated from the German Original of Mr. C. M. Wieland. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Wilkie.*

THE reputation which Cervantes acquired by that excellent satire, *The History of Don Quixote de la Mancha*, has prompted sundry authors to attempt performances of a similar kind, all of which have, however, fallen short of the merit of that truly original production. The work before us is a fresh instance of the difficulty, we had almost said the impossibility, of rivalling the work of Cervantes, although that author's manner is in some places not unhappily imitated. The madness of Don Quixote has indeed, the advantage of being in itself much more diverting than that of Don Sylvio de Rosalva, as the latter had conceived notions that the absurdities related in fairy tales were real and indisputable facts; absurdities far more repugnant to common sense than the chimerical notions of chivalry entertained by Don Quixote, and which are therefore not so easily imagined by the reader.

Don Sylvio de Rosalva, the hero of the piece, as soon as he had learned Latin enough to comprehend Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, and when the barber of the neighbouring hamlet had taught him music sufficient to accompany some dozens of old ballads on the guitar, was taken under the care of his aunt Donna Menzia, a prudish lady of threescore, who had picked up her ideas of education in *Pharamond*, *Clelia*, the *Grand Cyrus*, and other books of the same stamp. The happy disposition of the pupil was such, that before he had attained his fifteenth year, he was at least as learned as his aunt, and could reason so well upon the most subtle questions in history, physics, theology, metaphysics, morals, politics, the art of war, antiquities, and the belles lettres, that the footman of the family, the vicar, schoolmaster, and the barber abovementioned, could never enough admire his wonderful talents. From such an education, joined to a natural exquisite sensibility, and a lively imagination, it is reasonable to expect he would acquire a very romantic turn of mind, especially as he was bred up in solitude and rural simplicity.

The *Tales of the Fairies* having accidentally fallen into the hands of our young hero, gave the finishing stroke to his education: from the time that he perused these, his imagination was continually employed about enchantments, palaces of diamonds and rubies, princesses enchanted or shut up in towers or subterraneous palaces, and tender lovers, who, under the wondrous protection of a good fairy, escaped the subtleties of

a bad

a bad one. Filled with these ideas, and with that of having an invisible enemy in a powerful fairy, he endeavours to find an opportunity of obliging some generous fairy, whose power might counteract the mischievous pranks played him by the bad one, and might enable him to find out and disenchant the fair one whom he was destined to love.

His first attempt for this purpose is his preserving a green frog from being devoured by a stork; but the frog having leaped into a ditch, instead of appearing in the shape of a fairy, to thank him, he concludes that she may then be incapable of appearing in her proper shape. Not long after, having caught a blue butterfly which seemed to him, by a supplicating look, to beg its liberty, he lets it fly, and concludes that it must be an enchanted fairy, in which opinion he is confirmed by finding, at the same time, a miniature picture of a beautiful shepherdess, whom he no longer doubts to be her the Fates had destined for him, and whose picture he believes to have been left him by the enchanted fairy, in return for his not having detained her a prisoner in the shape of a butterfly. The next thing therefore to be done is to seek this blue butterfly, in order to gain intelligence of his fair shepherdess; and in this search he soon after finds means to engage, taking with him the footman Pedrillo, to whom he communicates his intentions, and who is destined to perform a part somewhat similar to that of the famous Sancho Pança, but to whom he is infinitely inferior both in simplicity and native humour.

We cannot here describe all the adventures which our hero met with; suffice it to say, that as they generally end in the disappointment of his ridiculous hopes, we have been frequently led to laugh at them; and as our readers may be inclined also to laugh at the poor don's expence, and to be acquainted with the nature of his exploits, we shall here transcribe one.

‘ It happened odd enough that three or four girls of a neighbouring village, after fatiguing themselves with mowing grass, were set down upon the river side to refresh them in the shade, and by way of amusement exercised their fancy in making garlands of the flowers, that grew in vast quantities just beside them.

‘ The blue butterfly had left its persecutors so far behind, that they could hardly keep sight of it; hence, fancying itself out of danger, it began to be composed, and resumed its sportive dance from flower to flower, till at length, behold it fell into the hands of one of those haymaking girls, who took and fastened a thread to its leg, then let it fly as it pleased round about her.

Don

• Don Sylvio by this time was got near enough to observe all that passed, and addressing Pedrillo, now, said he, at last I perceive the issue of that dream which yesterday morning so puzzled me to explain; it was a warning from my friend the fairy, who made me foresee in my dream what now awaits me, in order that I may take my measures accordingly, so as not to fall into the snares of my enemies. Do but observe that nymph yonder, under the shade, holding the blue butterfly fastened with a thread and flying about her.

• A nymph, say you; answered Pedrillo, deuce take it, Signior, sure you are only laughing at me; why that creature there is just as much like a nymph, as I am a bottle of hay; she is only a country wench, just as the others that sit under the trees beside her.

• I am already too much accustomed to thy blundering conduct, replied Don Sylvio, to make myself angry at this impertinence. I know what I am to think of the matter, thanks to the fairy Radiante, and whatever thou shalt take her for, nymph or rustic, I tell thee she shall yield me up my princess, or I will lose my life.

• Signior, said Pedrillo, whenever there is any thing to do about salamanders and sylphids, or about spirits or other things of that sort, which are quite above the reach of a common man, there I'll readily give up to your honour, and I'll own to you with all my heart, that I am sure you understand such matters better than I; but, as to country-folk 'tis quite another affair, for surely I must be able to know somewhat about those things. Besides, 'tis impossible to be deceived in a case of this kind, for you may even smell these honest wenches at least thirty foot off; now I should be glad to know when you ever met with any nymphs that smelt of garlick, or their petticoats so rent and tattered that you may see their smocks every way you look at them. In short, Signior, I tell you 'tis a downright country wench, aye, and one of the nastiest too that ever you saw in your life; she'll yield you up the blue butterfly, never fear, and if you'll but give her a few maravedis, will return you a thousand thank-ye's and God bless ye's into the bargain.

• Don Sylvio, who never listened to reason when once he had got any thing into his head, did not deign the least attention to what Pedrillo said, but marching up to the supposed nymph, demanded of her his butterfly.

• And what will you give me for it, Signior, said the girl, laughing.

• Whatever thou wilt, replied Don Sylvio.

‘ O, very well, then pray give me the little toy that hangs about your neck, said the nymph, I’ll give it to my little sister at home, and if you’ll but put half a real to it, the butterfly and the thread are both yours.

‘ Cursed green dwarf, cried Don Sylvio, drawing his sabre, and foaming with rage, hope not with that borrowed shape, which sufficiently proves thy cowardice, thou canst mock me with impunity. Die thou wretch, or restore me the butterfly, to which thou hast no right or claim, and which I will tear from thy accursed heart, though it should cost me my life.

‘ It will easily be imagined that to an apostrophe so ungracious, and accompanied with terrible menaces, the fair nymph before him could make no other reply than by crying out with all her might. Pedrillo, whom his master’s folly had almost worked up in a violent passion, threw himself forward between the nymph and our hero, endeavouring, at the same time, to disarm his master, on finding him deaf to all his remonstrances; mean while the other nymphs, seeing their companion so roughly treated, came up in a great hurry, and fell like furies both upon Don Sylvio and Pedrillo, insomuch that our hero had the greatest difficulty in the world to defend himself against their violent hands and forked nails.

‘ Unfortunately the lover of the young nymph, mistaken for the green dwarf, was at work with two or three other peasants in the neighbouring fields; the lamentable cries of the women, and the countenance of his mistress, whom Pedrillo was just going to pull by the hair, put him in such a fury that he ran up to them, accompanied by his fellow labourers; the first thing he did, was to wrench Pedrillo’s large staff out of his hands; which done, he thrash’d our adventurers in so emphatical a manner, that in spite of their vigorous defence, at length they yielded to the multitude of their enemies. This exploit did not yet appear sufficient to the furious lover or the young wench, who breathed nothing but revenge, nor was their rage satisfied ’till after having so battered our adventurers with fifty cuffs, that the peasants themselves began to think that they had gone too far. Matters being brought to this state, the nymph made herself mistress of our hero’s trinket, as he lay almost breathless on the ground, which she did to indemnify herself for the butterfly, who, from the commencement of the fray, had taken wing; this done, the rustic assembly quitted the field, leaving our poor adventurers half dead, extended upon the grass.’

After various disappointments, Don Sylvio is at last undeceived in his belief of the reality of fairy scenes, and married to a lady who had lost the picture which he accidentally found, and

and which contributed so much to strengthen his former illusion. His *Fidus Achates*, Pedrillo, is married to the lady's waiting woman, others of the dramatis personæ, whose histories are introduced in the course of this work, unite also in matrimonial bands, and the piece concludes quite in the taste of modern romance.

XI. *Epigrams of Martial, &c. with Mottos from Horace, &c. Translated, imitated, adapted, and addressed to the Nobility, Clergy, and Gentry. With Notes moral, historical, explanatory, and humorous. By the rev. Mr. Scott, M. A. late of Trinity-College, Cambridge. 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Wilkie.*

NEVER yet, in the course of our various reading, did we meet with any performance that could fairly dispute the palm of stupidity with this before us. Never did we behold a deception so shameless, or find ourselves more puzzled than in our present attempt to determine, whether the ignorance or the impudence of the author is the greatest. This work was designed to impose on the public by sheltering its worthlessness under a name, which, a few winters ago, made no inconsiderable figure in the political world. This his pretended work was published on the first of January 1773, and on the 8th of same month the following paragraph made its appearance in the Public Advertiser.

'We can assure our readers, that a book lately published by J. Wilkie in St. Paul's Church yard, entitled *Epigrams of Martial, with a Variety of Mottos from Horace, translated, &c. &c.* is not written by the rev. Mr. James Scott, late fellow of Trinity College in Cambridge, and now rector of Simonburn in Northumberland; nor does that gentleman know any thing either of the work or its author.'

Mr. Scott might have spared himself the trouble of disclaiming this publication, had he ever seen it, for the most inveterate of his political enemies would have scorned to fix such an imputation on their most dangerous adversary.

Our translator is distinguished by such universal deficiency in every requisite towards writing, as to appear an absolute phenomenon. He neither understands his own, or any other language; and with the harmony of verse he is as totally unacquainted as with every rule of decency or good manners. A few specimens of his talents will content the reader.

Motto 86. P. 202.

'Totus Mundus agit Histriionem.'

To Mrs. Barry, on seeing her some considerable time ago in the Fair Penitent.

'Go on, sweet actress! and you not long hence
Will prove CATISTA in the original sense.'

The word *Callista* in the Greek (says the author) signifying
the best. It happens, however, to mean *the fairest*.

Μαρούς τ' ἰδὲζε, εἴρα δ' αἰς ἀλάματος
Κάλλιχα. Euripidis Hecuba.

'Mamillasque ostendit, pectoraque quasi statuæ
Pulcherrima.'

Motto 87. P. 203.

'Nil desperandum Tuce duce et auspice Teucro.'

'Under such Trojan guides there's no room for despairing,
Since thro' both *thick and thin* they will give you an airing.'

Motto 102. Page 227.

'Si quis erit dignus describi—
Quod Maechus foret—aut alioqui
Famosus, multa cum libertate nocebat.'

'If there was one who set up for a SMIRK
Or infamous for vill'itous, cheating work
Egad! he trimm'd him finely at a jerk.'

Epigram, P. 234.

To Mr. Colman.

'I'm much mistaken if that your *Barsanti*
In time don't prove the public's *dilettanti*.'

The man knew the meaning of the word *dilettante* no more
than he knew how to spell it. He has just shewn his igno-
rance in the Greek, and is now desirous to prove himself
equally unacquainted with Italian. A *Dilettante* is a lover of
music, or painting. Miss Barsanti therefore is to prove—
what?—why the public's *lover of music and its sister art*.

Motto 112. Page 261.

'Prima dicte mihi, summa dicende Camcena.'

'As you're my friends! address to in my first,
To be forgot at last! O horrid and unjust.'

Motto 81.

'O imitatores, servum pecus! ut mihi sæpe
Bilem, sæpe jocum vestri movere tumultus.'

'Ye servile herd! how often at your folly
Have I been deadly cut with laugh and melancholy.'

At the end of this extraordinary publication is added a large
table of *Errata*; but it is observable that most of the mistakes
occur in the language from which the author pretended to
translate. In p. 196, the following line from Horace is intro-
duced, and printed with no less than four blunders, one of
which only is acknowledged.

'Sirenis vocem Circes et pocula nostri.'

The translator desires us to correct *nostri* into *nōsti*, but had
not Latin enough about him to discover that two other words
are falsified, and an awkward transposition made.

Pray,

Pray, gentle reader, take the true line, and Mr. Scott's translation along with it.

'Sirenum voces, et Circes pocula nôsti.'

'You know the jade's winning alluring voice,
And mother Cole's bottle that makes us rejoice.'

Where was the blush of the publisher, when he sent this rhapsody of ignorance and nonsense into the world?

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

12. *La Gamologie, ou l'Education des Filles destinées au Mariage. Ouvrage dans lequel on traite de l'Excellence du Mariage, de son Utilité politique, et des Causes qui le rendent heureux ou malheureux. Par M. de Cerfvol. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris.*

THE author of this series of instructive and elegant letters conducts his fair pupil from the earliest germs of natural and fond desires, through the several stages of celibacy, marriage, and maternity.

As so great a part of the happiness of mankind depends on the manners and character of the fair sex, and of their conduct as daughters, wives, and mothers; the contributions of judgment, eloquence, and taste towards so interesting a concern as their education, will always prove acceptable to humanity.

13. *Lettres sur la Théorie des Loix Civiles, où l'on examine entre autres choses s'il est vrai que les Anglois soient libres, et que les François doivent ou imiter leurs Opérations, ou porter envie à leur Gouvernement. 12mo. Amsterdam, (Paris.)*

From the seriousness of this writer's declamations, and from his ill-fated propensity to carp at the *Spirit of Laws*, we cannot, indeed, but suppose him to be in earnest in preferring the Persian government to the British constitution, and in recommending the politics of Asia to European readers.

We are, however, sorry to see, from his complaints, that even French critics could condescend so far as to waste any strictures on effusions which every feeling of nature, and every dictate of mere common sense must have pronounced to be beneath all notice of learning and of criticism.

14. *Poétique Elementaire. Par M. L. S——, de plusieurs Academies. 12mo. Lyons.*

As M. la Serre treats a subject, so often and ingeniously discussed by writers of all ages and nations, we are not surprised to meet with very few new ideas in his *Elements of Poetry*: but they bear evident marks of extensive and sound learning and an elegant taste.

15. *Géographie Elémentaire, moderne et ancienne, contenant les Principes de la Géographie, une Description générale du Globe, et un Détail particulier de l'Europe et de la France. Par J. N. Buache de la Neuville. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris.*

This well written compendium presents us with a concise yet distinct view of astronomical, physical, and political modern and ancient geography. The physical part especially is enriched with many original and ingenious observations, that had been inserted in the *Récueil de l'Académie des Sciences*, in the years 1751 and 1752; and a short abstract of the revolutions of the different states,

adds to the value of this work; which has deserved the approbation of the Academy of Sciences.

16. *Esprit des Philosophes et Ecrivains célèbres de ce Siècle.* 12mo. Paris.

This book consists of sundry reflections and anecdotes of the celebrated M. d'Alembert; and seems to threaten this age with a voluminous compilation to be deposited with the *ana* of the former century.

17. *Prospectus d'un nouveau Théâtre, tracé sur les Principes des Grecs et des Romains.* Par Jean Damun, *Architecte de S. A. S. Mgr. le P^e. de Conti, Pensionnaire de la Ville.* 4to. Paris.

This Prospectus of a more elaborate work, on such a construction of theatres as would best suit the conveniences of actors, spectators, and machinists, displays an uncommon share of learning and sagacity; and will induce the lovers of dramatical exhibitions to wish Mr. Damun's plan not only completed, but adopted and realized.

18. *Traité du Bonheur Public.* Par M. Louis Antoine Muratori, *Bibliothécaire du Duc de Modene; traduit de l'Italien sur l'Edition de Lucques, 1749. Avec sa Vie et le Catalogue de ses Ouvrages, par M. Jean François Soli Muratori, son Neveu, le tout extrait et traduit aussi de l'Italien sur l'Edition de Venise, 1756.* Par L. P. D. L. B. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris.

When we pronounce this production of the late celebrated M. Muratori, inferior to several works of other writers on the same subject, and even to the generality of the performances of its own author; let us recollect, that probably it has not been revised and finished by himself; that his works are so amazingly numerous as to form a library by themselves; that many of them are very interesting and meritorious; and that from the abstract of his life we find him to have been a man not only of very great learning, but what is infinitely more, of uncommon charity and virtue.

To apply the maxim, "Ubi plurima nitent—non ego paucis offendar maculis," to works of genius, is candour, is pleasure; to apply it in the general estimate of amiable or respectable characters, is the duty of humanity.

19. *Lettre à M. V——.* Par un de ses Amis, sur l'Ouvrage intitulé : *Evangile du Jour.* 8vo. Paris.

Containing a variety of topics, cathartics and caustics, wasted, we fear, in vain on an insensible and incurable patient.

20. *Le Philosophe du Valais, ou Correspondence philosophique, avec des Observations de l'Editeur.* 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris.

Should this series of just and spirited epistolary remonstrances against the sophisms and illusions of infidelity prove ineffectual in inveterate cases; it may be hoped at least, that in youthful, sound, and innocent minds they will operate as preservatives.

21. *L'Iliade d'Homere, traduite en Vers, avec des Remarques, et un Discours sur Homere.* Nouvelle Edition, augmentée d'un Examen de la Philosophie d'Homere, par M. de Rochefort, de l'Academie des Inscriptions et des Belles Lettres. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris.

When we see a spirited writer venture on a task uncommonly hazardous, we feel an uneasiness somewhat similar to that on observing some extraordinary feats of horsemanship, or rope dancing. Thus we have several times beheld that venerable bard Homer, dressing at
a toilet,

a toilet, and politely obliged, bongré maugré, to rehearse his Iliad in French rhymes.

Of all the French attempts on Homer we think, however, that of M. de Rochefort, the most successful upon the whole. Such, indeed, are his talents, erudition, and taste, as to make us regret that they were not rather applied to the production of some excellent modern original.

22. *Essai sur la Caractère, les Mœurs, et l'Esprit des Femmes dans les differens Siècles.* Par M. Thomas, de l'Académie Française. 8vo. Amsterdam.

After this great panegyrist had celebrated the multifarious merits of philosophers, chancellors, admirals, generals, and princes*, Minerva (resolved upon rewarding the toils of his eloquence with a theme yet more delicate, and more universally interesting) inspired him with the idea of this *Essay on Woman*.

It was herself, no doubt, that unveiled for him the deep and intricate recesses of female hearts, and that invested his countenance all the while with the solemn dignity of a philosophical judge† of this fairer part of the human race. Yet, though Erato, or some sprightly Grace, are suspected sometimes to have lifted up a corner of the band of his justice‡, and smiled her out of her impartiality, stern Criticism herself, far from entering any protests, demurrer, appeal, or reversal, softened her pensive air into complacency while she was contemplating his judicious picture of female characteristics as it was drawn, *con amore*; and pronounced it to be a *beautiful and masterly profile*.

23. *Application des Mathématiques à la Tactique, Ouvrage utile aux jeunes Officiers qui savent les Elémens des Mathématiques, ou qui, en les apprenant, veulent s'occuper de l'Art de la Guerre, au lieu des Problèmes de pure Curiosité qu'on a coutume de résoudre.* Par Nouail, Maître de Mathématiques. 8vo. (with Cuts.) Paris.

After a few pages of preliminary notions and definitions, M. Nouail reduces the principal evolutions of infantry and horse, as prescribed by the French military reglement, into mathematical problems, in which he calculates and demonstrates the shortest ways and times of performing them; and illustrates his solutions by a number of cuts.

Though his subject be apparently dry, his design is ingenious, and very far from being uninteresting; since it is well known that most important events, the success of an engagement or a retreat, a siege, a campaign, a war, has sometimes been determined by single, sudden, rapid military operations; where an opportunity of a few minutes proved decisive: and his book is evidently calculated for the improvement of the quickness of the eye, and the presence of mind on such occasions.

* Of Des Cartes, Daguesseau, du Gué Trouin, marechal de Saxe, and the late Dauphin.

† Cet ouvrage ne sera ni un panégyrique, ni une satire, mais un recueil d'observations et de faits. On verra ce que les femmes ont été, ce qu'elles sont, et ce qu'elles pourroient être, p. 7.

‡ Borrowed from the following passage; 'Rarement les femmes sont elles comme la loi qui prononce sans aimer ni haïr. Leur justice souleve toujours un coin du bandeau pour voir ceux qu'elles ont à condamner ou à absoudre.' p. 96.

24. *Histoire des Guerres des deux Bourgognes sous les Regnes de Louis XIII. et de Louis XIV. Par M. Bequillet, Avocat au Parlement, &c. Dijon et Paris. 2 Vols. 12mo.*

The most remarkable incident related in these two first volumes, is the amazing intrepidity with which the inhabitants of the town of S. Jean de Lône sustained a siege formed by a powerful army of four combined nations, under the Imperial general Galas, in 1636, who, after all their efforts, were forced to retire.

So gratefully was Mr. Bequillet's spirited and interesting narrative of this event received by the descendants of these brave citizens, that, in imitation to the citizens of Calais*, they unanimously voted him their public thanks, and the freedom of their town.

25. *Short Memoirs of some learned Swedes on several Subjects relative to Physic, Chemistry, and Mineralogy, translated from the Swedish Language. 2 Vols. 8vo. Leipzig. (German.)*

A motley collection of very unequal merits; rather faithfully translated, than selected with judgment.

26. *A Dissertation on Spectres; with an Appendix, concerning Vampirism. 4to. Augsburgh. (German.)*

It has been often and justly observed by M. d'Alembert and others, that the catholic provinces of Germany are, in point of solidity of learning and elegance of taste, greatly inferior to the protestant ones.

This distance, however, we now perceive, begins gradually to diminish. Theresa, and Joseph II. are at present successfully cherishing sciences, belles lettres, and polite arts, in their dominions; and from this present performance we behold with pleasure, sound philosophy, after a hot and entertaining literary war, on a subject somewhat similar to the Cock-lane ghost, struggling, even in Bavaria, to emerge into day-light.

27. *Contributions to the Dessert for gay and serious Company; consisting of a Collection of sundry Maxims, Reflections, Tales, humorous Sallies, and Trifles. A periodical Paper. Two Parts. 8vo. Hamburgh. (German.)*

A plentiful dish, made up of shrewd remarks, witty tales, sprightly and humorous sallies, catches, glees, &c. most of them highly seasoned, palatable, and so easy of digestion, that, were we not assured from good hands, of its being originally dressed by the late Mr. Dreyer, we should have mistaken it for the production of some clever French cook, designed for a macaroni club,

28. *Contributions to the Entertainment of gay and serious Companies. 8vo. Hamburgh. (German.)*

Another plate of similar ingredients; furnished by the same ingenious caterer.

29. *A Collection of short Essays, by J. A. Unzer. 2 Vols. 8vo. Hamburgh. (German.)*

A variety of philosophical and moral subjects discussed with solidity and elegance, by a writer who has long and eminently distinguished himself as a physician, a philosopher, and a moralist.

* Who had thus rewarded Mr. de Belloy's celebrated tragedy, the Siege of Calais.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

M E D I C A L.

30. *The London Practice of Physic: the 2d Edit. with large Additions and Amendments.* 8vo. 5s. Robinson.

THIS edition of the London Practice of Physic appears to have received considerable improvement. The description of the various diseases is not only rendered more full and accurate, but what must be a circumstance of great advantage to the student, the several appellations by which they are distinguished by different writers, are generally enumerated; and the language is also greatly improved with respect to correctness, perspicuity, and precision. These are not the only considerations, however, which recommend this edition in a particular manner to our approbation. For the work is now enriched with the history of several diseases which had formerly been omitted. The latest improvements in practice are also carefully inserted; and there are subjoined useful observations respecting the prevention of diseases, as we observe particularly in the article of the plague, yellow fever, and scurvy; insomuch, that the volume is increased almost a fourth part of its original size. The alterations which have been adopted, extend even to the arrangement of the diseases, which are now classed according to the system of Sauvages. By this means, such diseases as correspond in the greatest number of circumstances, are brought nearer each other; and the description, as well as the cure, are thereby more easily retained in the memory of the reader; for whose greater convenience a complete Index is likewise added. We therefore recommend the London Practice of Physic, in its present form, both as a very useful work to the medical student, and an excellent manual of physic, to be occasionally consulted by every young practitioner.

31. *A New Practical Essay on Cancers.* By J. Burrows, M.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hooper.

The medicine here recommended for the cure of cancers being a nostrum, we cannot deliver any opinion relative to its efficacy, or the propriety of its use in those disorders. We must therefore, be contented with the author's declaration in the Preface, that any gentleman of the faculty may examine his patients before he begins with them, visit them under the operation of the medicines, and see the event.

F A R R I E R Y.

32. *Practical Farriery; or the Complete Directory, in whatever relates to the Food, Management, and Cure of Diseases incident to Horses. The whole alphabetically digested, and illustrated with Copper Plates.* By John Blunt, Surgeon. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Robinson.

Though the art of farriery has for its object the health of a species of animals the noblest, and most useful to mankind, in point either of labour or recreation, yet it has never been studied

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with

with the assiduity which it was reasonable to expect. Some efforts, however, have been made of late years to rescue it from empiricism, by Bracken, Gibson, and Bartlett, and it must be acknowledged, that they have severally contributed to its improvement. Proceeding upon the same rational plan, and furnished with the accumulated observations of all preceding writers, it is with pleasure we behold a new attempt, by an author who is likewise conversant in medical subjects, for carrying this useful branch of science to a higher degree of perfection.

Mr. Blunt has not only judiciously availed himself of the improvements of former writers on the subject, but he has also digested the work into a plain and methodical system.

The treatise is arranged under three general heads.

I. Of the horse in general: his food and management.

II. Of the diseases incident to horses, and their method of cure:

III. Of the medicines most efficacious in those disorders to which the horse is liable.

The subjects of each general division are alphabetically ranged; and, for the greater convenience of the reader, an Index is added. The author has also given a list of drugs, and pointed out a method of distinguishing the genuine from the factitious. The plates are well engraved, and due attention seems to have been given for rendering it useful both to the gentleman and farmer.

P O L I T I C A L.

33. *Authentic Papers, relative to the Expedition against the Charibbs, and the Sale of Lands in the Island of St. Vincent.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Almon.

This collection appears to be intended for the use of parliament. It contains copies of memorials, letters, and addresses, relative to the Island of St. Vincent, from the year 1767, to the present year.

34. *Considerations on the State of the Sugar Islands, and on the Policy of enabling Foreigners to lend Money on real Securities. In a Letter addressed to the right hon. Lord North, by a West-India Planter.* 8vo. 1s. Bladon.

This writer seems to give a just representation of the state of the Sugar Islands; and he likewise maintains, on good ground, the expediency of the bill now under the consideration of parliament, for enabling foreigners to lend money on real securities in those colonies, at the same time that he invalidates the objections which may be made against such a law.

35. *Observations on the Present Naval Establishment in Regard to the Reduced Officers.* 8vo. 1s. Flexney.

In this pamphlet an account is delivered of the alterations which have taken place at different times in the pay of the naval officers; and the incompetency of the present half-pay establishment of that brave and useful body of men is placed in a clear and undeniable light. On this subject, we can only express

press a desire, that the petition now under the consideration of parliament, for an increase of the naval establishment, may be regarded with that attention which the rank, the merit, and the distresses of the petitioners deserve.

36. *A Letter from a Captain of a Man of War, to a Member of Parliament.* 8vo. 6d. Baker and Leigh.

Said to have been written at the conclusion of the last war. The date of it, however, can be matter of no consequence with respect to the subject, which is nearly the same as that of the preceding pamphlet.

CONTROVERSIAL.

37. *A Letter to the right hon. the Lord North, Chancellor of the University of Oxford, concerning Subscription to the XXXIX Articles; and particularly the Under-Graduate Subscription in that University.* By a Member of Convocation. 8vo. 1s. Rivington.

This writer begins his letter to lord North with an encomium on 'the spirited and successful application of his lordship's great abilities to the controlling of the dangerous tumults of a profligate faction.' He makes some remarks on 'the Hoadleian cant' of the Dissenters, and the gentlemen associated at the *Feathers*†; the scheme of abolishing the subscription of under-graduates in the university of Oxford, &c. He then proceeds to answer these objections:

I. That the doctrines contained in the XXXIX Articles are abstruse.

II. That the young subscriber is necessarily ignorant of their meaning, and of the proofs of their truth.

III. That his subscription necessarily implies an assent, founded on sober and accurate examination.

A zeal for ancient forms and reputed orthodoxy is the most distinguishable circumstance in this production.

38. *A Letter to the Members of the New Association for altering the Articles and Liturgy of the Church of England.* 8vo. 6d. Hingeston.

This Letter is addressed to the members of an association, who have proposed an application to the bishops, for their assistance in procuring an alteration in our Articles and Liturgy*. The author thinks, that there is a kind of indecency in desiring the bishops to favour a design, the propriety and lawfulness of which, he says, is at least disputable. He tells us, that 'we ought to rest satisfied, under the most rational assurance, that, if there

† Several writers, in favour of the present establishment, speak of 'the association at the *Feathers*,' and the gentlemen of the *Feathers*, with a *sarcastic sneer*. What a pity, the petitioners did not assemble under *better auspices*, and obviate this miserable witticism, by appointing their meetings a few yards westward, at the *Crown and Anchor*!

* See Crit. Rev. for December last, Art. 26, and for January, Art. 50.

were any material errors in the doctrines of the church, and the dissatisfaction of men were so general, as it is pretended, the very nature of their pastoral office, their unaffected regard to truth, the interests of religion, and the peace and good government of the church, would engage them to promote a speedy reformation.' He alleges, that the accomplishment of the scheme they propose might be productive of dreadful schisms, and endless animosities; that 'the plain sense of the Scriptures in the great and fundamental doctrines of our religion, as delivered by the reformers, will always stand fixed and immutable'; that 'the Reformation disclaims the idea of erecting a new church,' &c.

There is no great strength of argument in this remonstrance.

39. *A Letter to the Reverend **** M. A. Fellow of **** College, Oxford, on the Case of Subscription at Matriculation.* 8vo. 6d. Rivington.

This Letter is in answer to the following questions:

I. In what sense the convocation may be supposed to have enacted, that all scholars to be matriculated, having arrived at the age of twelve years, shall subscribe to the Articles of Religion?

II. Whether the present statutable subscription be liable to any just exception?

III. Whether the present subscription be preferable to any other test, which has been, or may be proposed?

With respect to the first question, the author says: If the imposer has expressed his intention, the case is clear: if not, I should conceive the following maxims will be admitted as leading to a discovery of it. 1. It is probable, that the imposer intends an assent rather than a promise of silence; because this is the natural and primary meaning of subscription.—2. It is probable, that the imposer intends an assent of knowledge or opinion, rather than an assent of belief. For this assent, when it can be had, is the more natural, obvious, and satisfactory; and we only have recourse to the other, when this fails us.—3. When assent of knowledge or opinion cannot be had, the imposer intends an assent of belief.—4. If a case should ever occur wherein no assent can be had, the imposer intends a promise of silence.

In applying these considerations to the matter in hand, the author supposes, that the convocation did not intend an assent of knowledge or opinion (for this plain reason, because the subscriber is utterly incapable of such assent) but an assent of belief. 'The plain meaning then of the subscription required will be this: the subscriber declares, "that he believes, upon the authority of his instructors, the doctrines of the Church of England to be true, or agreeable to the word of God:" by which declaration he virtually professes himself to be a member of the said church.'

In answer to the second enquiry the author endeavours to shew, that the present subscription (implying an assent of belief) is unexceptionable.

In examining the third question, he considers the design of the university in imposing a test at matriculation, the age of the subscribers, and other circumstances; from which he draws the following conclusion:

“I am of opinion that it greatly deserves your consideration, whether, though an assent to the doctrines of the church be the most natural test, whenever the age and circumstances of the party put him in a capacity to give or to refuse it, yet some other may not be thought of, which shall be at the same time equally decisive, and better adapted to the present case. If, for instance, he “solemnly declare himself to be a member of the Church of England,” he gives you that very assurance, for the sake of which you required his subscription to the articles; he subscribes to a declaration, the meaning of which he fully comprehends; which he has no doubt of his own sincerity in giving, or of your equity in requiring. If moreover “he promise to conform to its liturgy and worship,” he strengthens his declaration by the best argument possible; there being no fairer evidence of my being an unfeigned member of a church than my constant conformity to its worship. And when his present incapacity shall be removed by age and education, when he shall have carefully perused the Articles of the Church of England, and compared them with the Scriptures, he will then, I doubt not, most readily subscribe to them upon conviction; and will thus in due time and order, and upon grounds indisputably rational, compleat the test which I think an English university ought sooner or later to require of all her members, namely, that they conform to the worship, and assent to the doctrines, of the national church.

This is the most judicious pamphlet we have seen upon the academical subscription.

40. *Another Letter to the Lord Bishop of London; containing a Project for effectually satisfying the Petitioners for Relief in the Matter of Subscription; and perpetuating the Peace of the Church.* 4to. 1s. 6d. L. Davis.

This writer humourously proposes, that all ecclesiastical benefices shall be put up to public auction; that the money arising from the sale shall be divided among the members of the association at the *Feathers*; that the orthodox clergy shall be transported to America; and that a new set, consisting of wood, lead, iron, and stone, shall be fabricated and prepared, properly habited, examined by the society aforesaid touching their faith, and by them distributed into the several parishes and benefices, void by the removal of the late incumbents.

The author expatiates upon the advantages, which would attend this establishment, and answers the most material objections, which may be raised against the plan he proposes.

There are some tolerable strokes of wit and satire in this performance.

41. *Logica Wesseiensis: or the Farrago Double Distilled. With an Heroic Poem in Praise of Mr. John Wesley.* 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

In this pamphlet the author exposes some of Mr. John Wesley's contradictions and inconsistencies. The heroic poem mentioned

tioned in the title-page is a piece of burlesque, consisting of twenty-four stanzas, in the style and manner of John and Charles Wesley's Hymns and Sacred Poems. There are strokes of smartness and humour in this tract: but a detail of Mr. Wesley's inconsistencies is a trite, uninteresting subject.

42. *The Finishing Stroke: containing some Strictures on the review Mr. Fletcher's Pamphlet, entitled, Logica Genevensis, or a Fourth Check to Antinomianism.* By Richard Hill, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

In this pamphlet the author complains, that his antagonist has misrepresented the sentiments of the Calvinists. He observes, that the doctrine of imputed righteousness has been held by men the most eminent for piety and learning this nation has ever produced; and that Mr. Fletcher himself, in a sermon, which he preached in the year 1764, has very zealously maintained those Calvinistic doctrines, which he has lately exploded.

Surely Mr. Hill should allow Mess. Wesley and Fletcher to alter their opinions, and grow wiser as they grow older!

P O E T R Y.

43. *Phoenix Park: A Poem.* By the Author of Killarney. 4to. 2s. Robinson.

The former poem of this author obtained our commendation, for the lively description of the local scenes it exhibited, and the beauty of the episodes it contained. The production now before us is justly entitled to the same praise, and presents the imagination with an agreeable prospect of the environs of Dublin, intermixed also with some fanciful representations conceived in a pleasing style of poetry.

44. *Faldoni and Teresa. A Poem.* By Mr. Jerminham. 4to. 1s. Robson.

To excite compassion for suffering virtue, by painting its distress in the liveliest colours, seems to be the general design of the author of the Poem before us. His pieces are mostly of the pathetic kind, and we have frequently had occasion to mark them with our approbation. The following is the subject of his present performance, which is perhaps more affecting, though founded on fact, than any he has hitherto presented to the public.

A young man and a young woman at Lyons, two years ago, who had conceived a passion for each other, were prevented from marrying by the girl's relations. Finding it impossible to remove this obstacle to their union, they desperately resolved to destroy themselves, and for this purpose they erected a kind of altar in a private retreat, and kneeling before it, each held a pistol, to the triggers of which were tied rose-coloured ribbands. Each held the ribband which was fastened to the other's pistol, on pulling which, at a signal agreed on, they put an end to each other's existence.

'*Arria and Pætus*,' adds Mr. Voltaire, who mentions the story, 'first set the example; but then it must be considered they

they were condemned to death by a tyrant, whereas love was the only inventor and perpetrator of the deed we have recorded.

The enthusiastic passion of these lovers our author has expressed very happily, and the reader who has the least sensibility will scarcely fail of shedding a tear at the melancholy tale.

To those who can relish the luxury of compassion we recommend the perusal of this performance, from which we do not make any extracts, as it could not be done without showing them to disadvantage.

45. *Conscience: A Poetical Essay.* By William Gibson, M. A. 4to. 1s. Beecroft.

This ingenious writer, after a short introduction, describes the first appointment of conscience in the human breast; her remonstrances on the first disobedience of man; the injury she sustained by the fall; the crimes which have overspread the face of the earth, in consequence of her defeat on that occasion; the progress of adultery, injustice, avarice, and rapine.—The horror and devastation occasioned by the last of these demons, in the East Indies, are very pathetically described. From thence the poet takes occasion to represent the remorse of the plunderer and ruffian, when Conscience begins to awake.

This poem procured the author Mr. Seaton's reward.

46. *The Messiah, a Poem; by the late Simon Goodwin.* 4to. 6d. Baldwin.

A specimen.

'Hail ye blest shepherd, thus he gently said,

Grateful my message is, my tidings glad;

I bring Messiah this auspicious morn!

To you in Bethlehem the babe is born;

Arise, go see, search out the infant God,

And fall before him with a sacred ode.

This is the sign: the Saviour of mankind,

The king of kings you'll in a manger find.'

47. *The Patricians: or, a candid Examination into the Merits of the principal Speakers of the House of Lords.* By the Author of "the Senators." 4to. 2s. 6d. Kearsly.

In a former Review*, we gave an account of the poetical effusion, entitled, *The Senators*, to which the present production may be considered as a supplement. The author has now turned the current of his abuse from the lower to the higher house of parliament, amongst the members of which illustrious assembly he discharges his impotent invectives with the same vehemence, the same malignity, and the same disregard to justice, as in his preceding rhapsody.

D R A M A T I C A L.

48. *The Golden Pippin: an English Burletta, in Two Acts.* As it is performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By the Author of *Midas*. 8vo. 1s. Becket.

In this Burletta, which is founded upon the Judgment of Paris, the heathen deities are again represented in a farcical situa-

* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxxiii. p. 410.

tion. The dialogue, consistently with the design of the piece, is of a low kind, but the strokes of humour with which it abounds, cannot fail of affording entertainment to an audience who can relish such compositions.

49. *The Wedding Ring, a Comic Opera. In Two Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in Drury-Lane.* 8vo. 1s. Becket.

The hint of this piece is acknowledged to be taken from an Italian Opera, entitled, *Il Filosofo di Campagna*, but from the alterations which are here introduced, we may consider the *Wedding Ring*, in the greatest part, as an original production. The plot is conducted with address, the characters are naturally delineated, and the musical parts are of such a length, and occur so frequently, as both to diversify the representation, and gratify the taste of the audience.

MISCELLANEOUS.

50. *Leap-Year Lectures. A Collection of Discourses delivered on the 29th of February to a Select Society.* 8vo. 2s. Bladon.

The obvious design of these discourses is to mix entertainment with instruction; an attempt in which it is, perhaps, impossible to succeed, by declaiming on any passage of Scripture whatever, where the author restrains the excursions of his fancy within the bounds of morality and decorum. Whether the expectation of the readers, therefore, will be as much gratified with the perusal of these motley lectures, as their curiosity may be excited by the texts which the author has chosen, we shall not take upon us to affirm; and shall only observe of this commentator, that when serious, he is rational; and when ludicrous, inoffensive.

51. *Liberal Thoughts on the present Dilapidation of Church-Houses; or, an Equitable Scheme for its Prevention.* By Robert Wilson, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Payne.

In this tract Mr. Wilson states the present penal laws of England relative to dilapidations, gives a short account of the remunerative or bounty acts now in force in Ireland, and proposes a new scheme for preventing dilapidations. The scheme he proposes is as follows:

That each or every present or future incumbent, whether archbishop, bishop, dean, dignitary, rector, vicar, or perpetual curate, laying out (under the proper directions of his respective governor, the king, archbishop, or bishop) one, two, three, or four years clear income upon his particular preferment, shall, either upon removal or death, instantly become entitled to an annuity of ten, twenty, thirty, or forty years, at or after the rate of ten per cent. for any given capital so expended in necessary improvements.

